Mu'tah University
Deanship of Graduate Studies

A Comparative Study of English Small Clauses and Arabic Nominal Sentences

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Dedication

I dedicate this work to the memory of my father, to my mother, wife, daughter, brothers, sisters, and all those who helped me during conducting this work.

Mohammad Khalid Al-Qatawneh

Acknowledgements

I am immeasurably grateful to my supervisor Prof. Mohammad Al-Khawalda who is an enthusiastic and a thoughtful language consultant, and whose efforts, suggestions, and instructions have provided me with insight into difficult problems.

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Mohammad Khalid Al-Qatawneh

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List of Abbreviations Used in this Thesis

Abbreviated Form	Full Form
A	adjective
ACC	accusative
AP	adjective phrase
AGR	agreement
AUX	auxiliary
Comp/C	complementizer
CP	complementizer phrase
Dat	dative
D-structure	deep structure
+D	nominal feature
DP	determiner phrase
ECM	exceptional case marking
EPP	extended projection principle.
f	feminine
FUT	future tense marker
GEN	genitive Case marker
INFL/I	inflection
INFL0/I0	zero inflection
ILP	individual level predicate
IP	inflection phrase
LF	logical form
M	masculine
MSA	modern standard Arabic
N	noun
NS	nominal sentence
NOM	nominative Case
NP	noun phrase
P	plural/preposition
PART.	particle
PP	preposition phrase
Pred/Pr	predication
PrP	predicative phrase
PRES	present
Pst	past
S	sentence
S'	s-bar
SLP	stage level predicate
Spec	specifier
S/sg	singular
SC	small clause

sub	subject
S-structure	surface structure
θ- role	theta role
t_i	trace
TNS/T	tense
TP	tense phrase
V	verb
VP	verb phrase
X'	x-bar

List of Phonetic Symbols

1. Consonants:

Symbol	Description	Arabic Transliteration
?	Voiced Glottal stop	أ
b	Voiced bilabial stop	ب
d	Voiced dental stop	د
k	Voiceless velar stop	ك
j	Voiced alveolar affricate	ج
q	Voiceless uvular stop	ق
m	Voiced bilabial nasal	م
n	Voiced alveolar nasal	ن
r	Voiced alveolar trill	ر
f	Voiceless labio-dental fricative	ف
th	Voiced dental fricative	ذ
s	Voiceless alveolar fricative	س
Ş	Voiceless alveolar emphatic fricative	ص
z	Voiced alveolar fricative	ز
sh	Voiceless post-alveolar fricative	ش
kh	Voiceless uvular fricative	خ
gh	Voiced uvular fricative	غ
ħ	Voiceless pharyngeal fricative	ح
C	Voiced pharyngeal fricative	ع
h	Voiceless glottal fricative	ه
ţ	Voiceless post-alveolar affricate	ط
t	Voiceless alveolar stop	ت
Đ	Voiced post-alveolar affricate	ض
y	Voiced palatal approximant	ي
w	Voiced labio-velar approximant	و
l	Voiced alveolar lateral	ل

2. Vowels:

a. Short vowels

i	high front unrounded
a	low front unrounded
u	central back rounded

b. Long vowels

ii	high front unrounded
aa	low front unrounded
uu	high back rounded

Abstract

A Comparative Study of English Small Clauses and Arabic Nominal Sentences

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Mu'tah University, 2014

The aim of this current work is to investigate the syntactic properties of both English small clauses (SC) and Arabic nominal sentences (NS). As we know, clauses usually contain verbs which are finite or non–finite, whereas small clauses lack an overt verb.

In this research, the researcher has shown the different views concerning small clauses in English and how such clauses are treated and analyzed by different syntacticians such as (Williams,1983), (Tim Stowell, 1981/1983), (Aarts,1992) among others. Second, the researcher has shown the structure of verbless nominal sentences in Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) in addition to the views of the Arab grammarians such as (Fassi Fehri, 1993), (Benmamoun, 2000) among others. Then, within the domain of the X' theory(x-bar theory), the researcher has compared and contrasted small clauses in English and nominal sentences in Arabic from different perspectives such as the categorial status, the internal structure, and how case and agreement are fulfilled. The comparison reveals that, to some extent, English small clauses are similar to those in Arabic but differ in some of their syntactic properties

الملخص

مقارنة الجمل الإسمية في اللغة العربية واللغة الإنجليزية

محمد القطاونة

جامعة مؤتة، 2014

هدفت هذه الدراسة إلى مناقشة الخواص النحوية للجمل الإسـمية فـي اللغـة الإنجليزية و اللغة العربية، حيث تُعرف الجمل الإسمية في كـلا اللغتـين بأنهـا لا تحتوي على فعل ظاهر خلافاً للجمل التي تحتوي على فعل يحدد صيغتها الزمنية.

من خلال هذه الدراسة، أولاً قام الباحث بعـرض الآراء المختلفـة المتعلقـة بالجمل الإسمية في اللغة الإنجليزية وكيفية التعامل معها و تحليلها من قبل النحويين أمثـال (Williams,1983) و(Stowell, 1983, 1981) و (Aarts, 1992) وغيرهم في هذا المجال. ثانياً تم توضيح بنية الجمل الإسمية فـي اللغـة العربيـة الفُـصحى وآراء النحـويين العـرب أمثـال (Fassi Fehri, 1993) و(Benmamoun,2000) وغيرهـم في هذا المجـال. بعد ذلك وضـمن نظريـة (X' Theory) قام الباحث ببيان أوجه التشابه والاختلاف بين الجمل الإسـمية فـي اللغة الإنجليزية والجمل الإسمية في اللغة العربية من نواحٍ مختلفة مثـل التـصنيف والبنية الداخلية وكيفية الوصول للحالة الإعرابية والتجانس بين المبتدأ والخبر. نـتج عن المقارنة أنه إلى حد ما تشابهت الجمل الإسمية في اللغتين الإنجليزية والعربيـة ولكنها اختلفت في بعض الخواص النحوية.

Chapter One
Background of the Study

1.1 Introduction:

The term 'Small Clause' (SC) is used to describe the clause which lacks a verb, such as, 'Bill honest' in 'I believed [Bill honest]'. Small clauses can be considered one of the challenging issues in Syntax. The source of the problem lies in how to analyze and treat small clauses. That is, are they inflection phrases (IPs)with inflection (INFL)-node? Are they XP without INFL-node and complementizer (Comp) node? Or are they S' (s-bar) with comp-node and INFL-node? Linguists haven't even agreed whether they are constituents or just a complement that contains a noun phrase (NP) as a direct object followed by an adjective phrase(AP), NP, or a preposition phrase (PP).

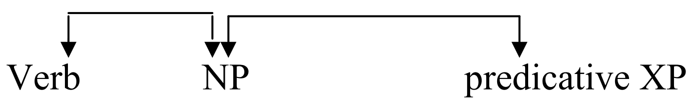
In this study, following many scholars such as (Williams, 1983), (Hornstein and Lightfoot, 1987), among others, the assumption that a SC is an XP in the string [NP XP]=AP, NP or PP will be taken into consideration, while other forms such as a present participle, past participle, and bare infinitive illustrated in (1) below will be peripherally mentioned because they are strongly controversial and rejected by many scholars such as (Stowell, 1981,1983).

1. a. Winnie made [Oscar leave]
   b. Nelson saw [them running away]
   c. They feared [Pete shot by the army] (Aarts, 1992: 25)

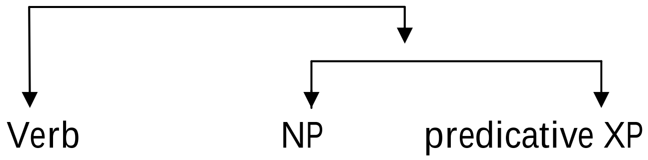
Aarts (1992) states that small clauses are structures which have clausal characteristics in that they contain a subject and predicate phrase. They are, however, generally believed not to contain a complementizer position or INFL-node. The following bracketed sequences in (2) in the surface structure (S-structure) are small clauses:

2. a. Mike considers [her intelligent]
   b. I want [Mary happy]

He argues that there are two basic dependency relations: the first one is the relation between the main verb and the intervening NP and between the intervening NP and its predicate XP.



The second relation is between the NP and its predicate on one hand, and the relation between the main verb and NP and its predicate as a whole on the other hand.



Wieson (2003) states that a small clause is a part of a sentence that often has a subject and a predicate but may lack a verb or include a verb without tense. This can be seen in a sentence like (3) below:

3. The jury found [the man guilty]

In this sentence, the main clause has a subject 'the jury' and a predicate that includes the verb 'found' and the small clause 'the man guilty' where there is no verb though it can be considered to include an implied verb in the form of 'to be' and can be rewritten as (4) below:

4. The jury found the man to be guilty.

Yokogoshi (2003) claims that we analyze the bracketed string in (5) below as a unit because clearly its parts can't be separated. In (5) below, what Susan found was not 'the job' but 'the job very difficult' and we can analyze this unit as a clause because we can posit an implicit verb, namely, a form of the 'verb be'.

5. a. Susan found [the job very difficult]
   b. Susan found the job to be very difficult.

Weker (1985) argues that the bracketed string 'the prisoner innocent' in sentence (6) below should be treated as a clause namely a small clause since there is predicate relationship between the NP 'the prisoner' and the AP 'innocent'.

6. John believes [the prisoner innocent]

Weker (1985) believes that (7 a-b) below are almost identical by analogy since they have the same meaning and 'the prisoner innocent' is a reduced form of 'the prisoner to be innocent', that is to say it has the same grammatical function as the direct object of 'believe'.

7. a. John believes [the prisoner to be innocent]
   b. John believes [the prisoner innocent]

Arabic, like other languages, has a structure that could be identified as a small clause. It is called 'nominal sentence (NS)'. Like English small clauses, there has been a disagreement about the definition of nominal sentences and their internal structure. Following many scholars such as (Benmamoun, 2000), (Bakir, 1980) among others, a nominal sentence is used here to mean the sentence which lacks a verb, such as (8) below:

8. khalid-un muCallim -un
   khalid-Nom teacher-Nom
   "Khalid is a teacher."

Arabic 'nominal sentences' according to (Abdul-Ghany,1981), among others, have the properties that they are preceded by an abstract empty INFL in their present tense form as in (9) below:

9. Zayd-un Kariim-un.
   Zayd-Nom generous-Nom
   "Zayd is generous."
   [IP [I' [I INFL [AGR][Nom]][sc [NP Zayd] [xp kariim]]]]

1.2 Statement of the problem:

Many linguists have been hotly debating on the form of the internal structure of small clauses. So when syntactically dealing with sentences that contain small clauses, we fall in our doubts whether to treat or analyze these parts as IPs with unrealized INFL–node which takes a VP-node as its complement or zero INFL–node which takes NP, AP or PP complements as shown in (10) below or a complement of the matrix verb containing a direct object and adjunct.

10. [sc [NP [INFL Be] XP]]
    [sc [NP [INFL zero] XP]]

Moreover, the status of Arabic nominal sentence is not clear. Some grammarians consider it a small clause, others give it different analyses. Accordingly, in the light of the analyses of small clauses in English, can we consider nominal sentences small clauses?

1.3 Significance of the study:

Studying and analyzing different views concerning the internal structure of what is called SCs and NSs will illustrate to those interested in this field the significance of these views in dealing with the syntactic properties of SCs and NSs from different perspectives. To the best of the my knowledge, this could be the first attempt which handles English small clauses and Arabic nominal sentences applying the X-bar Theory.

1.4 Purposes of the study:

This study seeks the following purposes:

1. To examine and analyze SCs and NSs from different perspectives depending upon different views adopted by different linguists.
2. To show the similarities and differences between English SC and Arabic NS.
3. To provide some recommendations that learners may take into consideration when dealing with such structures.

1.5 Questions of the study:

This study is interested in answering the following questions:

1. Are there small clauses in English? If so,

2. What is the internal structure and categorial status of these clauses?
3. What exactly are nominal sentences in Arabic and what is their internal structure?
4. Can we consider nominal sentences in Arabic as small clauses in English and to what extent are they different?

Chapter Two
Review of Related Literature

2.1 Section One: English Small Clauses

2.1.1 Introduction:

In this section, the definition of small clauses, the different arguments concerning them and their internal structure that may take various forms will be discussed thoroughly. These arguments will be illustrated and clarified with many examples using tree-diagrams and labeled brackets.

2.1.2 Related Studies:

The term 'small clause' was first introduced by (Williams, 1975) to refer to reduced relatives, adverbial modifier phrases, and gerundive phrases such as the bracketed strings in (11) below:

11. a. The man [driving the bus] is Norton's best friend.
    b. John decided to leave, [thinking the party was over]
    c. [John's evading his taxes] infuriates me. Balazs, (2012)

Although small clauses are considered one of the controversial phenomena in generative grammar, there are a lot of proponents who support their existence as syntactic constructs. However, they disagree about their exact categorial status and whether they should be treated uniformly.

In this study, the focus will be on the structure which generative grammar refers to as a 'small clause' that contains the string [NP XP] where NP and XP are in a subject–predicate relationship and [XP] is NP, AP, or PP as in (12) below:

12. a. John made [Bill a doctor]
    b. John considers [Bill silly]
    c. John kept [the money in the garden]

Haegeman (1991) argues that it is not clear how to label the structure 'the taxi driver innocent' in the following sentence in (13). However, traditionally, the term 'verbless clause' is used to indicate that it is a constituent which has a propositional meaning, that is it has the same meaning as a full clausal structure has, but lacks any overt verb form. He says that the constituent 'the taxi driver innocent' is similar in meaning to 'the taxi driver to be innocent' and both of which have the NP 'the taxi driver' as the subject of the predicate AP 'innocent'. He adds that non-finite clauses and small clauses are not normally found as independent clauses. That is they can only be subordinate to other main predicate. This is illustrated in (13) below:

13. a. Maigret believes [the taxi driver innocent]
    b. Maigret believes [the taxi driver to be innocent]

In order to examine the internal structure of SCs in details, I have to look at the proposals that have been put forward in the literature regarding the categorial status of the SC-node. This ranges from (Williams,1983), (Stowell,1981,1983), to (Hornstein –Lightfoot,1987), among others, who put their views in challenge with each others.

Williams (1983) states that the bracketed string 'Mary honest' in the following sentence in (14) is part of the VP headed by the matrix verb 'believe' which is as a whole is a predicate of the subject 'John'; that is to say 'Mary honest' is not a syntactic constituent.

14. John believes [Mary honest]

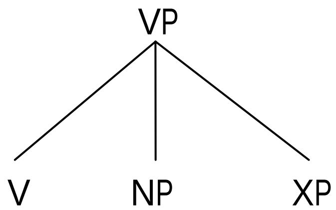
Williams (1983) uses a mechanism called 'Co–indexation' to support his analysis which shows that the predication relation between 'Mary' and 'honest' from one hand and between VP 'believes Mary honest' as a whole and the matrix subject 'John' on the other hand.

Williams (1983), who adopts The Predication Theory which was introduced as opposed to The Small Clause Theory (Stowell,1981), argues that a subject is not defined in structural terms but rather through co-indexation, that is any NP co-indexed with a predicate is the subject of that predicate. As a result, the subject and predicate do not form a constituent (Non-Constituent Hypothesis). Example of this is (15) below:

15. I [VP [V consider] [NP John] [AP silly]] (Williams,1983)

This can be clarified in (16) below using the tree diagram as follows:

16.



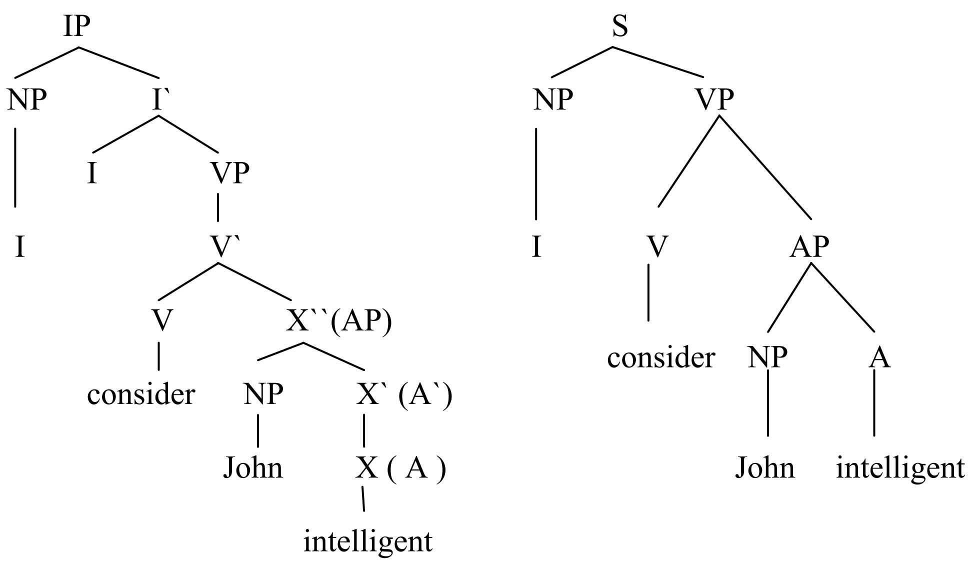
Stowell (1981), Who adopts the constituent Hypothesis which states that the syntactic strings of the form [NP XP] form their own constituents in a sentence, argues that SCs are maximal projections of a secondary predicate, with the subject of the SC in the specifier (Spec) position of [XP]. That is; all SCs must be projections of the head category of the constituent functioning as the predicate of the SC. To illustrate this, the SC [John intelligent] in (17) below is an AP with the structure where 'intelligent' is the head of the AP and 'John' is in the specifier position of that AP:

17. I consider John intelligent.

[AP John [A intelligent]]

This can be illustrated by the tree diagram in (18) below:

18. a. b.



The above analysis suggests that the predicate is a single–bar projection of its head and the whole SC is a double-bar projection of the head verb. So Stowell(ibid) claims that small clauses should be analyzed following the general rule as in (19) below:

19. [$_{xp}$ [$_{spec}$ NP] X']

Stowell (1983) also claims that the matrix verb is sensitive to the elements occurring inside the small clause as in (20) below. According to him, the verb 'expect' subcategorizes a small clause with the syntactic status of a PP not AP.

20. a. I expect [that sailor off my ship]
b.*I expect [that sailor very stupid] (Stowell, 1983:259)

He adds that the categories of predicative phrases inside small clauses depend on their matrix verb. that is; verbs like 'consider' and 'want' take different categories as the predicative phrases in their small clause complements as in (21-22) below:

21. a. I consider Mary intelligent. (AP)
b. I consider Mary John's best friend. (NP)
c. *I consider Mary off my ship. (PP)

22. a.*I want Mary intelligent. (AP)
b.*I want Mary my best friend. (NP)
c. I want this sailor off my ship (pp) (Stowell,1983:259)

According to Contreras (1987), Following Stowell, Chomsky (1981), based on the Projection Principle, argues that since there is a subject–predicate relationship between 'the matter' and 'clear' in (23) below at logical form (LF), it must be the case that that relationship holds at all levels; consequently at D-and S-structure, the subject and predicate must form a constituent.

23. I consider the matter clear.

Aarts (1992) states that Chomsky largely follows Stowell's conclusions regarding the structure of SCs but he disagrees with Stowell in that SCs can not be maximal projections because the SC-subject must be assigned a case mark and this can not occur across a maximal projection but in the 1986 Barriers Framework, Chomsky(1986) states that it is no longer a problem for the SC-node to be a maximal projection.

As opposed to Stowell's conclusion, Kitagawa (1985) argues that it is the semantic categories that determine the grammaticality of SC predicative phrases. He claims that 'consider–type verbs' select SCs which express 'state of affairs' whereas 'want–type verbs' select SCs that express 'change of state' as in (24-25).

24. a. I consider Mary honest.
    b.*I consider John happy.

25. a. We want Mary angry.
    b.*We want Mary our best friend. (Kitagawa,1985:212)

In support of Kitagawa's analysis, Yokogoshi (2003) claims that SCs selected by' consider-type verbs' and 'want–type verbs' should be treated differently since they have different syntactic and semantic properties. These verbs can be grouped as in (26) below:

26. a. consider, find, believe, imagine, judge, regard, suspect, take, etc.
    b. want, expect, fear, hate, like, love, need, etc.

A second opposite view is that of Basilica (2003). He argues that 'consider–type verbs select SCs which involve individual level predicates (ILP), whereas 'want-type verbs' select SCs which involve stage-level predicates (SLP) that is SLPs show temporary states while ILPs show permanent states. This can be illustrated in (27-28) below:

27. a. The republics consider Zhirinovsky a threat.
    b. We find him unbearable.
    c. They proved the allegation false.

28. a. we fear the rescue party lost in the mountains.
    b. Zhirinovsky wants reformers out of the parliament.

(Basilica, 2003:91)

A third different opinion is the syntactic differences between 'consider-type verbs' and 'want–type verbs'. First SC-subjects of 'consider–type verbs' can not be co-referential with R-expressions in the matrix clause whereas those of 'want–type verbs' can as in (29) below:

29. a.* I consider him honest more cordially than John's mother does.
    b. I wanted him dead more cordially than John's mother did.
    (Yokogoshi, 2003:176)

Second, SC-subject of 'consider–type verbs' can be passivized while 'want-type verbs' subject can not as in (30) below:

30. a. John was considered smart.
    b.*John was wanted happy.

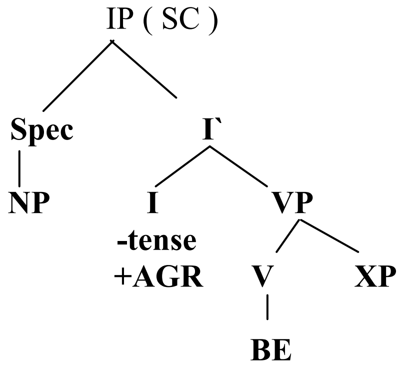
Third, 'consider-type verbs' do not allow topicalization of their small clause complements while 'want–type verbs' do as in (31) below:

31. a. *The allegation false, they proved.

b. Dogs in the house, they hate.

Aarts (1992) argues that SCs must be treated as sentential constituents headed by IP not as phrasal expansions of lexical categories. That is; the IP forms an independent syntactic unit C-commanded by the matrix verb as it is shown in (32) below:

32.



The above analysis suggests that the internal structure of a SC contains an I- node and a VP–node headed by a null copular verb 'BE' that takes NP, AP, or PP complements. The INFL–node must be marked [-tense] since it is a clause without a lexically realized verb. The INFL–node also must hold the feature [+AGR] to show the agreement relation between the subject of SC with its head 'I' in number and other features (spec–Head agreement). Those features are lowered onto 'BE' and transmitted onto the predicate [XP]under government and this would help to show the grammaticality of (33) below:

33. a. I consider [this teacher a megalomaniac]

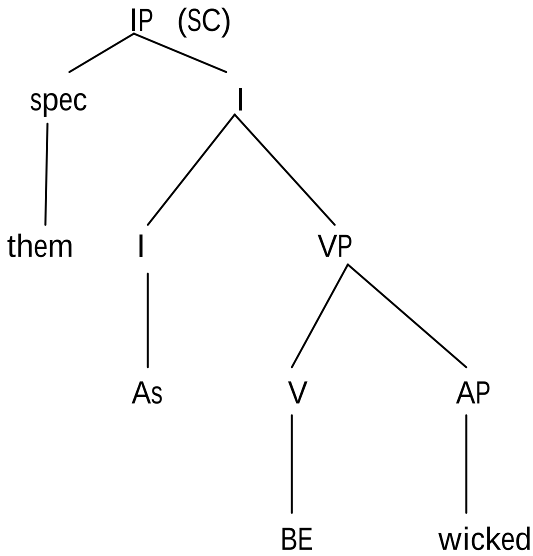
b. I consider [these teachers megalomaniacs] (Aarts, 1992)

In his analysis, Aarts follows kitagawa's view (1985) (explained below) that SCs contain an empty verb 'Be' but the difference between them is that 'Be' is located in INFL in kitagawa's analysis whereas in Aarts' analysis, 'Be' is located in the head V of the VP taking NP, AP or PP as its complement.

Aarts (1992) states that the reason why we should treat SCs as IPs containing an INFL–node is that this allows us to account for SCs containing the element 'as' as in (34) below. This 'as' is not a preposition but rather an inflectional word located in INFL, this can be illustrated in (35) below:

34. I regard [them as wicked]

35.



Aarts (1992) adds since I argue that small clauses are sentential constituents, not phrasal expansion of some lexical head, then SCs must be either finite or non-finite, so this can be interpreted by analyzing SCs as IPs containing INFL-node.

Kitagawa (1985) argues that SCs are to be treated as S–bars (s'=CPs) containing an INFL–node, so the structure of a SC in Kitagawa's view is [sc=s'[s NP [INFL BE] XP]] to avoid the violation of subjacency when extracting the subject of SC as in (36) below:

36. a. Who $_i$ [s do you consider [sc t$_i$ a genius]]?
b. Who $_i$ [s do you consider [s t$_i$ a genius]]?
c. Who $_i$ [s do you consider [s' t [s ti a genius]]]?

Kitagawa (1985) claims that in (36 b) above, subjacency is violated since wh– element moves a cross two S-nodes and so it can not represent (36 a). In (36 c) which kitagawa suggests, he claims subjacency is not violated because no two NPs or S-nodes are crossed in one swoop.

Radford (1988) suggests that SCs have the schematic structure [$_{sc}$ NP XP] and supports the view that SCs lack a complementizer node which blocks case to the SC-subject. He also believes that SCs lack an INFL–node. This can be observed in the following statement:

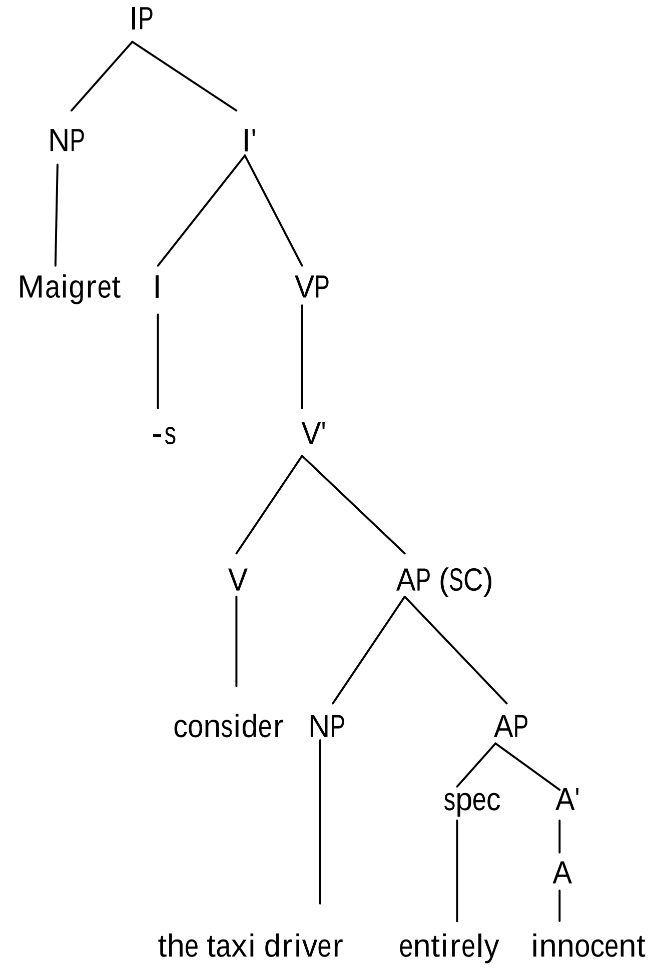
Radford (1988), in Aarts (1992:179), states that "A fourth difference between Ordinary Clauses [=S-bars] and Small Clauses is that because Ordinary Clauses contain an 'I' constituent carrying Tense and Agreement properties–whereas Small Clauses do not , it follows that Small Clauses may not contain verbs marked for Tense and Agreement, but rather may only contain verbs which are tenseless and agreementless"

Hornstein and Lightfoot (1987) believe that SCs are Ss that contain a zero INFL–node as in [sc=s NP INFL$_0$ XP] Where the node INFL0 takes NP, AP or PP complements to avoid the fact that when INFL is marked [+tense] or [-tense] the complement of which must be a VP.

Haegeman (1991) argues that we should take into consideration two things to account for the grammaticality of the sentences in (37): first, the case filter in which the overt subject NPs of small clauses must be case – marked and since SCs don't have a case–marker in themselves, it is proposed that the matrix verb 'consider' case-marks the SC subject through Exceptional Case Marking (ECM) condition. Second, SCs are super–projections of the category of their predicate and this can be illustrated in the syntactic representation in (38) below:

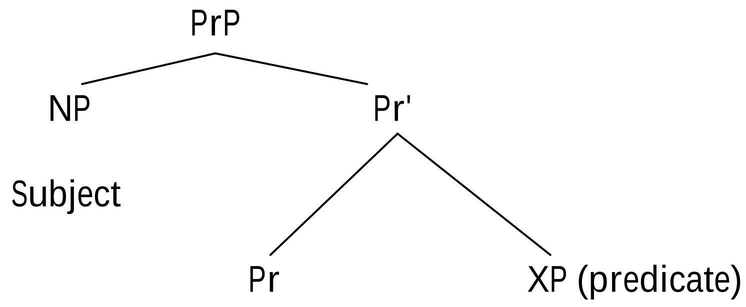
37. a. Maigret considers [AP the taxi driver[AP entirely innocent]]
b. I consider [NP Maigret [NP an inspector of great value]]
c. I consider [PP your proposal [pp completely out of the question]]

38.



In contrast with the above mentioned scholars, Bowers (1993) introduces a universally structured theory of predication to account for the main clause and SC predication. He proposes a new functional category that he calls 'Pr' (predication). He has represented predication as in(39-40)below: (Abu-Joudeh, 2013)

39.



X= (V , N ,A , P)

40. [IP I consider [PrP John [Pr' [Pr e][AP intelligent]]]]

Concerning the nominative and accusative cases, Bowers (1993) argues that they are assigned or checked through 'Spec-head agreement', that is 'John' enters into 'Spec-head relation' with V to check its accusative case while the subject 'I' moves from Spec Pr to Spec IP to check its nominative case. Unfortunately, according to (Abu-Joudeh, 2013) Bowers' proposal can not account for how predicate checks its case in languages like Arabic where the subject and predicate of the SC are both accusative as in (41) below:

41. hasib-tu r-rajul-a laṭ iif-an
thought-I the-man-Acc nice -Acc
"I thought the man nice."

2.2 Section Two: Arabic Nominal Sentences

2.2.1 Introduction:

In this section, nominal sentence **'Al- jumlat-u al-ismiyyat-u'** in Arabic will be introduced. It normally starts with a noun or pronoun and has two parts, the first one is the subject which is called **'Al-mubtada** ' and the second one is the predicate which is called **'Al-khabar'**. Unlike English small clauses which are always dependent, Arabic nominal sentences can be divided into two main types; the independent clause which can stand by its own and the embedded (dependent) clause which stands as a subordinate clause to the main predicate. The following examples in (42) clarify this point:

42. a. al-walad -u najiħ-un
the-boy.m.sg.Nom successful.m.sg.Nom
"The boy (is) successful."

b. kaana [al-walad-u najiħ-an]
was the-boy.m.sg.Nom successful.m.sg.Acc
"The boy was successful."

c. iCtaqat-u Mariam-a thakia:t-an
thought-I 1s Mary-3sf-Acc intelligent-3sf-Acc
"I thought Mary intelligent."

The first type-the independent clause-has no overtly lexical copula which creates much debate on its absence in this type of sentence. However, several attempts have been presented and in turn different alternative analyses have been proposed to account for the absence of the verbal copula in such constructions. In (42) above, (a and b) represent the independent nominal sentence in Arabic while (c) represents the embedded (dependent) nominal sentences.

2.2.2 Related Studies:

In Arabic, there are two types of sentences, the nominal sentence meaning **'Al jumlat-u al-ismiyyat-u'** which usually starts with a noun or pronoun and has no overt verb and the verbal sentence meaning **'Al-jumlat-u al-feCliyyat-u'** which starts with a verb. It should be noted here that there is a disagreement on the structure of Arabic nominal sentences. Some scholars such as (Sibawayh, 1977) (Mouchaweh, 1986) among others, point out that the verbless nominal sentence is the sentence which starts with a noun or pronoun and lacks any functional projection. On the other hand, some scholars such as (Fassi Fehri,1993), (Al-khawalda, 1997), (Bakir, 1980), (Al-Seghayar, 1988), among others, point out that the verbless nominal sentence is the sentence which has an implied copular verb. In this study, the second view will be considered. That is; the verbless type which carries the string [NP XP] where XP=NP, AP, or PP like (43) below where the subject [NP] and the predicate [XP] show morphological realization of a nominative case number, person, and gender.

43. a. Zayd-un mudarris–un [NP]
Zayd–nom teacher–nom
"Zayd is a teacher."
b. Zayd – un wasiim–un [AP]
Zayd–nom handsome–nom
"Zayd is handsome."
c. Zayd-un fi al- madrasat-i [PP]
Zayd–nom in the school–gen
"Zayd is in the school." (Al-Seghayar,1988:48)

Benmamoun (2000) states that verbless sentences are considered one of the significant characteristics of the Arabic language syntax. This type of sentence is called by Arab grammarians **'Al-jumlah al- ismeiah**' the Nominal Sentence' as in (44) below:

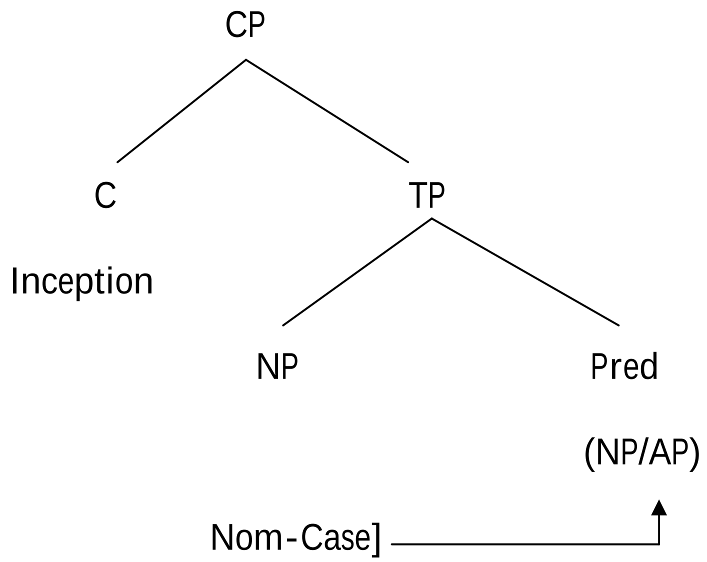
44. ahmad-u muCallim-un
Ahmad-Nom teacher -Nom
"Ahmad is a teacher."

There are two different views concerning verbless sentences in Arabic. The first one is introduced by early Arab grammarians such as

(Sibawayh, 1977) and others. They claim that in these sentences there is no V-node and hence no VP-node in the D- structure, that is they have only a subject and predicate. They argue that a correct reading of the sentence depends on identifying the constituent that functions as a subject and the other constituent that functions as a predicate. On the other hand, modern studies done by other grammarians such as (Bakir,1980), (Fassi Fehri, 1993), among others, argue that in these verbless sentences, there is a copula which is implied.

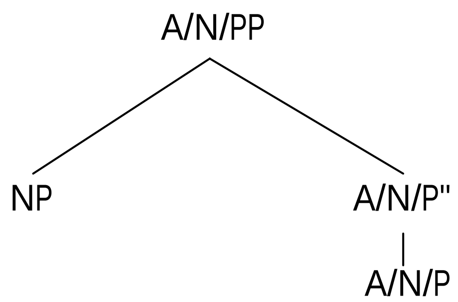
Accordingly, traditional Arabic grammarians state that in the tree diagram in (45) below, the subject NP is assigned nominative case by a null abstract governor located in C position which is **'ibtida'** (inception) and the predicate is also assigned nominative by agreement with the subject. (Sibawayh 1977)

45.



Mouchaweh (1986) who adopts what is called a matrix small clause analysis proposes that Arabic verbless sentences do not contain any functional projection but rather the lexical projection of the predicate and the subject of this predicate is in the specifier position. He introduces the D-structure in (46) below for predicational sentences:

46.

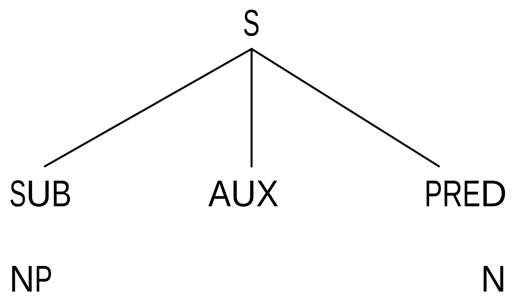


Mouchaweh (1986) argues that verbless sentences are basically small clauses with no functional projection above the lexical projection. He claims that both the subject and the non-verbal predicate which can be AP, PP or a NP are contained within the small clause, as in (47) below:

47. al -walad-u najiħ-un
the-boy.m.sg.nom successful.m.sg.nom
"The boy (is) successful."

Jelinek (1981) argues that there is a null AUX located in between the subject and predicate and it is specified for present tense feature only. This can be illustrated in (48) below:

48.



muhammad-un Ø mujtahid-un
Mohammad-nom PRES hard-working-m-sg-nom

Doron (1986) argues that the assumption of null AUX is implausible since this null AUX can not C-command the NP in the higher position and so it can not assign nominative to this NP, whereas the null abstract functional category in the C position higher is able to C-command the NP and assign it case as it is shown in (48) above.

Al-Seghayar (1988) argues that Arabic nominal sentences must be treated as small clauses whether they are dependent (embedded) or independent. These small clauses are to be treated as IPs containing an INFL-node for both dependent and independent small clauses. He argues that this INFL is internal to the IP but external to the small clause. This is shown by the base rules in (49) below:

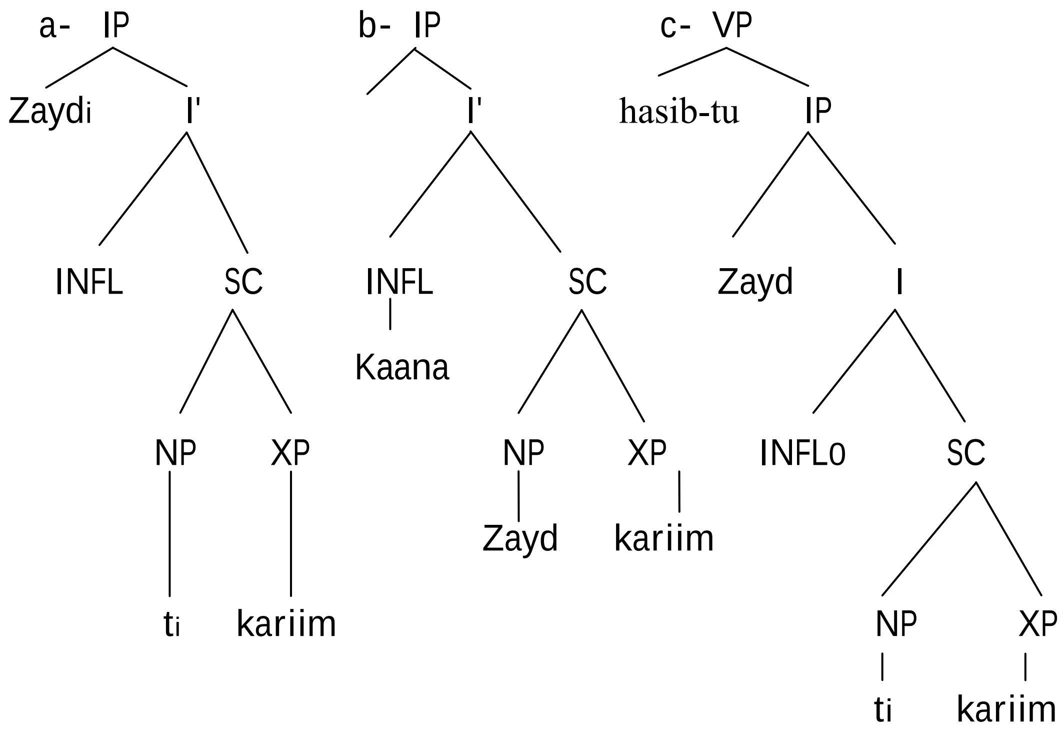
49. a. INFL ⟶ INFL SC
b. SC ⟶ NP XP

Following Doron (1986) Al-Seghayar (1988) states that this full INFL assigns case to the NP in the spec position in independent small clauses whereas in embedded small clauses and in independent small clauses which have overt copula, this zero INFL$_0$ does not assign case. This can be illustrated in (50) and (51) below:

50. a. [IP [I' [I INFL [+AGR] [+Nom]] [SC [NP Zayd-un] [AP Kariim-an]]]]]
b. [IP [I' [I INFL0 Kaana [+AGR][SC [NP Zayd-un] [AP Kariim-an]]]]]

c. hasib-tu [IP [I' [I INFL0 [+AGR] [SC [NP Zayd-an] [AP kariim-an]]]]]

51.

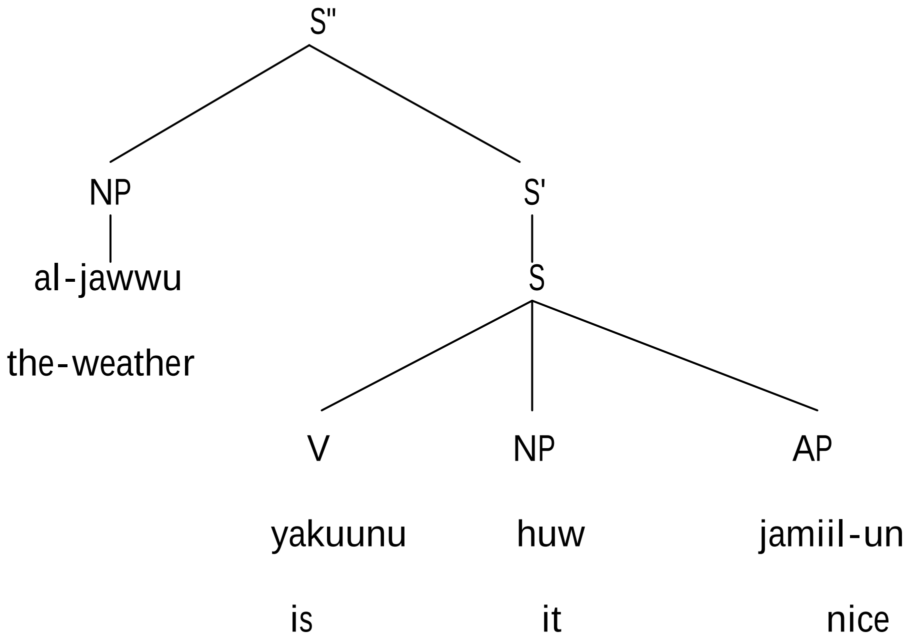


Bakir (1980) proposes that in Arabic verbless sentences there is a verbal copula that is phonologically deleted. He states that the NP preceding the copula is a topic and the subject is a pronominal element whose location is directly after the copula. Accordingly, two types of deletion take place:

1. Subject pronoun deletion since it is co-referential with the topic–NP.
2. Copula deletion.

This is illustrated in (52) below:

52.



Fassi Fehri (1993) disagrees with Bakir in the deletion of copula arguing that it is inserted as null. He argues that the copula is phonetically realized in what might be taken as specified moods, tenses, or aspects, so he introduces the following rule in (53) for the copula:

53. Spell out the copula as **'kwn'** when Mood, Aspect and/or Tenses are specified, otherwise, spell it out as zero.

Regarding the phonologically occurrence of copula in nominal sentences, Fassi Fehri (1993) indicates that the copula occurs when stative, adjective or locative conveys a general or habitual meaning, in polite use, and in modality with **'qad'** "may", **'yajib ?an'** "must" and **'yastaṭiiCau ?an'** "can". This can be illustrated in (54-56) respectively:

54. a. al-qalam-u tahta aṭṭawelaht-i
the-pen-Nom under the-table-Gen
"The pen is under the table."
b. *Qad al-qalam-u tahta aṭṭawelaht-i
may the-pen-Nom under the-table-Gen
c. Qad yakuunu al-qalam-u tahta aṭṭawilaht-i
may is the-pen-Nom under the-table-Gen
"The pen may be under the table."

55. a. *yajibu ?an al-qalam-u tahta aṭṭawilaht-i
must the-pen-Nom under the-table-Gen
b. yajib ?an yakuuna al-qalam-u tahta aṭṭawilaht-i
must that be the-pen-Nom under the-table-GEN
"The pen must be under the table."

56. a. huwa mudiir-un
He-Nom director-Nom
"He is a director."
b.* yastaṭiiC-u ?an mudiir-un
can that director-Nom
c. yastaṭiiC-u ?an yakuuna mudiir-an
can that is director-Acc
"He can be a director."

Bahloul (1994) states that previous accounts could not provide an adequate analysis because they relied on the claim that nominal sentences are derived from their underlyingly verbal counterparts, and that the verb is deleted or inserted as null. Such analysis can be seen in (Bakir, 1980), (Fassi Fehri, 1986), and (Abdul-Ghany, 1981). He argues that it is the INFL-node which is allowed to select a VP complement headed by a lexical verb or a non-VP complement headed by other than the verb. He proposes that the presence of the tense feature in INFL forces it to select a VP complement while its absence allows INFL to select a complement other than the verb such as NP, AP or PP.

On the other hand, Plunkett (1993) who studies the absence of the copula in verbless constructions in Arabic, proposes that "the 0-marked present tense does not need to be supported by a verbal element in Arabic. It is this fact which makes possible the existence of sentences without copulas in Arabic."(Plunkett, 1993:256)

Al-Khawalda (1997) argues that copular constructions (nominal sentences) are those sentences which lack an overt copula and hence have no overt tense morphology. They are inherently present tense. He states that these constructions consist of two basic nominal elements, **/Al-mubtada/** (the subject) and **/Al-khabar/** (the predicate). He proposes that to convey temporal and aspectual meanings an auxiliary may be added. He formulates the following rule in (57) below for copular sentences in general:

57. Copular Sentence ⟶ (AUX) [NP……. XP]

To prove that such constructions are inherently present, Al- Khawalda (1997) states that the use of temporal adverbs such as **'?al-?aana** (now)' and **'Fi al-waqti al–ħaathir** (at the present time)' which indicate present time do not contradict with the structure of the simple copular sentence. This can be illustrated in (58) below:

58. a. Zayd-un waziir-un
Zayd-nom minister-nom
"Zayd is a minister."
b. Zayd-un waziir-un ?al-?aana
Zayd-nom minister-nom now
"Zayd is a minister now."

c.* Zayd-un waziir-un ghadan
Zayd-nom minister-nom tomorrow
"*Zayd is a minister tomorrow."

d.* Zayd-un waziir-un Cindamaa zaarani
Zayd-nom minister-nom
"*Zayd is a minister when he visited me." Al-khawalda(1997:242)

In (58 c, d), the ungrammaticality lies in the contradiction between the future and past temporal adverbs **'ghadan'** and **'Cindamaa zaaranii'** with the tense of the sentence which is present by inheritance.

Moreover, Al- Khawalda (1997) adds that the tense in copular sentences does not contradict with any temporal adverbs in the past or future where the auxiliary verb **'k–w-n'** is obligatory such as (59) below:

59. a. kaana Zayd-un waziir-an al-Caama al-maaĐ i
"Zayd was a minister last year."

b. sa-yakuunu al-ţaqs-u baaridan (ghadan)
" The weather will be cold (tomorrow)."

In support of this view, Ouhalla (1988) argues that nominal sentences are sensitive to present tense adverbials but not to the past and future tense adverbials. This implies two things: first, nominal sentences have a present tense reading. Second, they are marked for tense, therefore they have a TNS-node.

Al-Khawalda (1997) argues that only one form of **'k-w-n'** can be used with copular sentences in present tense without contradicting with the structure of the sentence. It is **'yakuunu'**=(be-present) which is obligatory when it is restricted to encode moods preceded by modals such as **'qad'**(may), **'yajibu ?an'** (it is obligatory that), and **'yastaţiiCu' ?an** (he is able to). Those expressions are used to express probability necessity and ability respectively. This can be illustrated in (60) below:

60. a. qad yakuunu Zayd-un mariiĐ -an
Part. Pres-aux-3sm zayd-Nom ill-Acc
" Zayd may be ill."

b. yajib-u ?an yakuuna al-kitaabu - Cala al-ţaawilahti.
must comp. aux-Sub-3sm the book on the-table.
"The book must be on the table."

c. yastaţiiC-u ?an yakuuna mudarris-an
can-3sm comp. aux-Sub-3sm teacher
"He can be a teacher."

From the examples in (60) above, we notice that the visibility of **'yakuunu'**=(be-present) with present copular sentences is restricted to modals only and the absence of **'yakuunu'** turns the sentences ungrammatical as it is shown in(61)below:

61. a. *qad Zayd-un MariiĐ -an
Part. zayd ill

b. *yajib-u ?an al-kitaabu - Cala al-ṭaawilahti
must comp. the book on the-table .

c. *yastaṭiiC-u ?an mudarris-an
can-3sm comp. teacher (Alkhawalda,1997.p.249,250)

An opposite view on the deletion or null copula (Fassi Fehri, 1993), (Bakir, 1980) is that of (Benmamoun, 2000). He argues that when the copula is lexically realized it assigns accusative case to the predicate as in (62) below:

62. kaana khalid-un muCallim-an
be.past.3sm khalid-Nom teacher-Acc
"Khalid was a teacher."

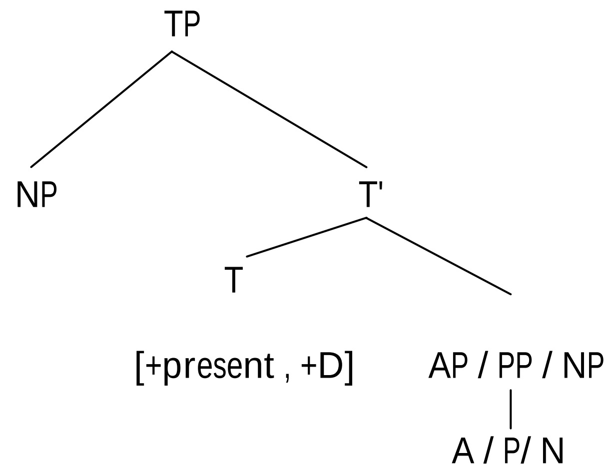
Benmamoun (2000) argues that in Arabic nominal sentences, the predicate is always nominative as in (63) below, so the assumption of null copula is not correct because the null copula must assign the same case as overt copula.

63. khalid-un muCallim-un
khalid-Nom teacher-Nom
"Khalid is a teacher."

So Fassi Fehri's conclusion, according to Benmamoun, can not explain why when the copula is overt the predicate carries accusative case but when it is null, the predicate carries nominative case. This is supported by the principle adopted by Arabic theory of government: Governing words bear Case-assigning, when they are null or deleted.

Benmamoun (2000) proposes that the T head in the present tense has different categorial feature specification from the past and future tenses which are specified for both [+D] and [+V]. The present tense in verbless sentences is specified as [+D] only. This means that the copula is not needed to check this feature because the [+D] feature can be checked by the subject. This can be illustrated in (65) by the following structure of SC introduced by (Benmamoun, 2000:49) (see Abu-Joudeh, 2013)

65.



Benmamoun (2000) clarifies his view by stating that the subject raises to the Spec of TP to check its morpho-syntactic property of the nominal [+D] feature and because the T head is not specified for a [+V] feature, we do not need the copula to check this feature; that is why verbless sentences lack a verbal copula in present tense. On the other hand, the presence of copula is obligatory in the past and future tenses to check the [+V] feature that they have. This can be illustrated in (66) below:

66. a. kaanat al-bint-u najiaħt-an [past]
be-pst-3f.sg the-girl-f.sg.Nom. successful.f.sg.Acc.
"The girl was successful."
b. sa–takuunu al-bint-u najiħat-an [future]
will-3f.sg-be the-girl-f.sg.Nom. successful.f.sg.Acc.
"The girl will be successful."

In contrast with the English small clauses which are always embedded (dependent), Arabic nominal sentences can be independent or embedded clauses. When they are independent , their subject is assigned accusative case when preceded by external governors such as the complementizer **'inna'** as in (67) below: (Al-Horais, 2006)

67. inna ahmad-a muCallim-un
That Ahmad-Acc teacher -Nom
"Indeed, Ahmad is a teacher."

Benmamoun (2000) states that embedded nominal sentences in Arabic are some times carry the accusative case for both the subject and predicate by verbs such as **'hasiba'** (he thought)which subcategorizes for a nominal sentence containing [NP XP]
Where XP = NP, AP, but not PP as in (68) below:

68. a. hasib-tu r-rajul-a mudiir-an
thought-I the-man-Acc a-director-Acc
"I thought the man a director."
b. hasib-tu r-rajul-a laț iif-an
thought-I the-man-Acc nice -Acc
"I thought the man nice."

In the case where the predicate is a prepositional phrase (PP), it is assigned genitive(Gen) case as in (69) below:

69. hasib-tu r-rajul-a fi- addaar-i
thought-I the-man-Acc in the-house-Gen
"I thought the man in the house."

Benmamoun (2000) adopts the assumption that verbless sentences can not be analyzed as small clauses. He proposes that a verbless clause embedded under a tensed matrix clause doesn't have the same temporal reference as the matrix tense but rather it has its own tense interpretation. This is shown in (70) below where the embedded verbless sentence has a

present tense interpretation while the matrix clause has a past tense interpretation:

70. qal inn Omar fi-addari
say.past.3sm that Omar in-the-house
"He said that Omar is in the house."

By contrast, small clauses depend on the matrix clause for their temporal reference as in (71) below:

71. shuft-u Omar na?im-an
see.past-1s Omar sleeping
"I saw him and he was sleeping." (not "I saw him and he is sleeping.")

Abdul Ghany (1981) states that the Arabic predicate NP and AP which carry a nominative case morphology may display other case properties when the whole construction falls in a larger sentence that contains a copula which subcategorizes for such constructions like (72) below:

72. a. Kaana Zayd–un mudarris-an
Was Zayd – Nom teacher – Acc
"Zayd was a teacher."
b. kaana Zayd–un wasiim–an
was Zayd – Nom handsome–Acc
"Zayd was handsome."

The same phenomenon also occurs when the copular verb **'kaana'**= (be-past) precedes the predicate NP, or AP as in (73) below:

73. a. Zayd–un kaana mudarris–an
Zayd – Nom was teacher – Acc
"Zayd was a teacher."
b. Zayd –un kaana wasiim–an
Zayd – Nom was handsome – Acc
"Zayd was handsome."

Abdul-Ghany (1981) argues that to account for the accusative case assigned to the predicate [XP], we can say that both types of sentences in (72) and (73) have the underlying D-structure with the copular **'kaana'**= (be-past) base generated in VP. The accusative case of the predicate [XP] is assigned by **'kaana'** when it remains in VP as in (73) and by 'INFL' when **'kaana'** raises to adjoin to IP as in (72) where the nominative case of **'kaana'** is assigned to the subject NP and the accusative of 'INFL' to the predicate of the clause. This can be illustrated in (74 a, b) below:

74. a. [IP [INFL Kaana [IP [I' [I [SC [NP Zayd-un] [NP mudaris-an]]]]]]]

b. [IP [NP Zayd –uni] [I' [I [VP Kaana [IP [I' [I [SC [ti][mudarris-an]]]]]]]]]

To sum up, various proposals have been made concerning the categorial status and the internal structure of both English small clauses and Arabic nominal sentences. I think that the most important conclusion that can be drawn from this heated debate is to assume that there must be at least one single proposal that might be able to overcome not all but most problematic issues that are the center of the debate. In my discussion in section four, I will limit myself to just two proposals: Al-Seghayar's analysis (1988) from Arabic and Bas Aarts' analysis (1992) from English.

Chapter Three
Design and Methodology

3.1 Introduction:

This chapter is devoted to give a brief idea about the variety of Arabic used in this thesis and X' Theory (x-bar theory) that is applied in the analysis of this work. Throughout the description of this theory, I have taken into consideration its history, its main assumptions, and how it handles the structure of the sentence. Then, case marking and binding are clarified since they are thoroughly used during the analysis of English small clauses and Arabic nominal sentences.

3.2 Data Collection and Analysis:

Arabic which is an important member of the Semitic language family plays a significant role all over Arabic speaking countries. One of its varieties is the Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) that is used throughout this paper. MSA is considered the medium of official communication such as academic education at universities and schools, formal speech, books, journals, and conferences. Based on MSA, the examples mentioned previously in chapter two as well as those in chapter four will be checked and discussed by specialists in the Arabic department. These examples as well as the English examples used in this paper will be discussed and analyzed within the domain of X' Theory explained in the next section.

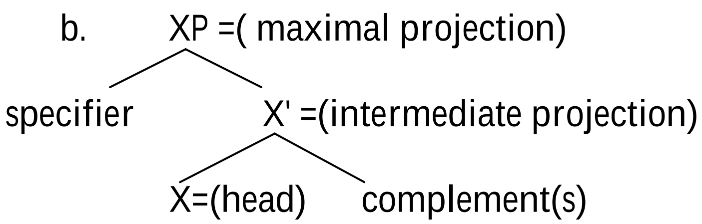
3.3 X' Theory:

X-bar theory is a linguistic theory that attempts to identify syntactic features common to all human languages. It was first introduced by Noam Chomsky in (1970) when its schema was adopted into generative grammar. It was then developed by (Jackendoff, 1977). Its aim is to specify the similarities between different categories of lexical phrases by assigning the same structure to them. The basic schema of X-bar theory can be represented in (75 a, b) below:

75. a. XP ⟶ specifier X'

X ⟶ complement

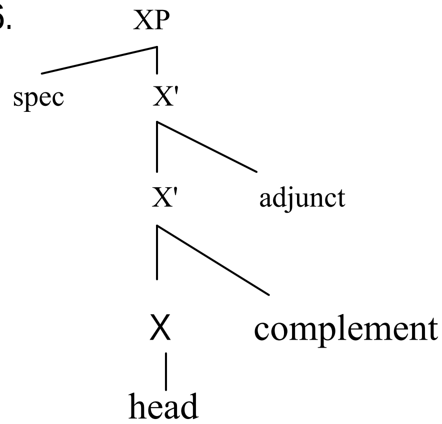
b.



(Cheryl, 1999:5)

In the above schema, [XP] forms the maximal projection or the mother with two daughter–nodes (spec and X'). Moreover, this X' has two daughter–nodes(the head X and its complement). The letter X stands for any arbitrary lexical category such as N, V, A or P. So the relation between elements in the schema is local. This locality plays an important role in this theory. X' theory relies on some crucial components that can be summarized as follows: the head (X) which determines the nature of the phrasal constituent (XP), so all XPs must have one and only one head which is the only obligatory constituent of an XP. The specifier which gives additional information about the head. The complement which is determined by its head via C-selection properties of its lexical entry, that is; if X=V and V=buy, this selects a NP complement.

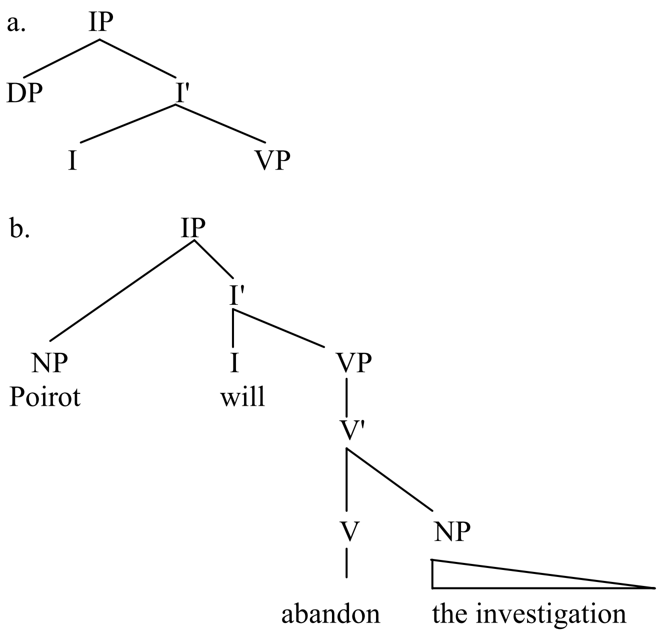
According to Cheryl (1999), in this theory rules are recursive, that is; we can generate an infinite number of possible structures. This can be illustrated in (76) below where the complement which is necessary in the sentence must take the head X as its sister whereas the adjunct which is not necessary takes X' as its sister.

76.


Some basic assumptions and claims are central to the X-bar theory. These assumptions can be summarized as follow: first all phrases are projected from lexical categories in the same way. Second, the head (X) subcategorizes for all and only its sister, that is the subcategorized complements are always phrases and heads and their maximal projections share certain features. Third, specifiers are optional. Fourth, branching is always binary. (Cheryl ,1999:5)

In its early stages, X-bar theory was concerned only with projections of items from the lexicon neglecting functional categories such as tense and agreement. But later on, these categories entered the structure including determiners, inflection, and complementizers. As a whole, these categories shape what is now called IP. This can be represented in (77 a, b) below where the DP subject is in the specifier position and the head 'I' contains the two essential features; tense and agreement nodes followed by the complement VP.

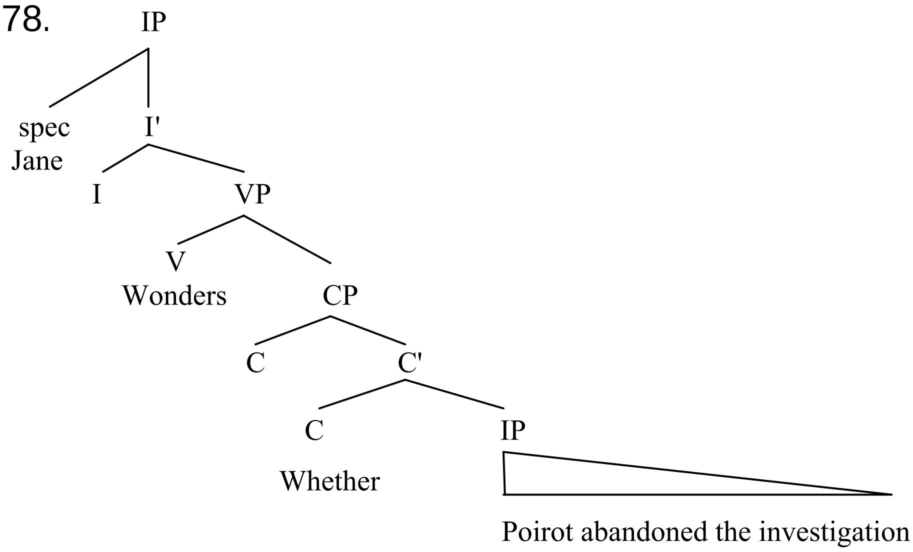
77.



(Haegeman, 1994:114)

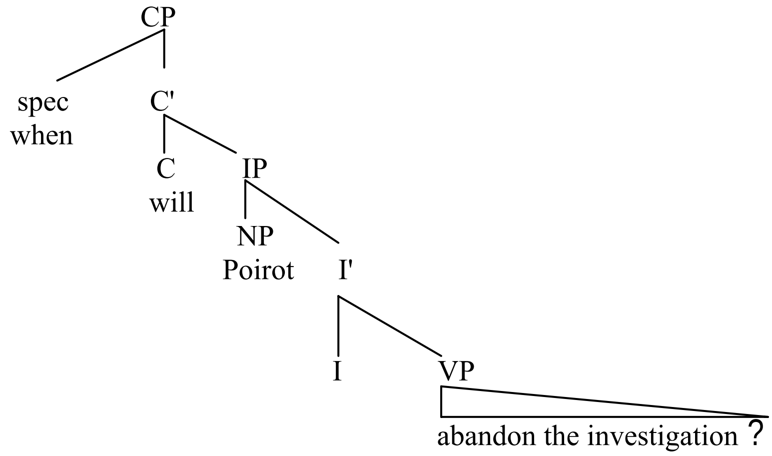
In complementizer phrases (CPs), the complementizer (C) is the head that turns the IP into a complement (embedded clause). The specifier position of C is used for moving elements such as wh-words for making questions. This can be illustrated in (78,79) below:

78.



(Haegeman, 1994:118)

79.



(Haegeman, 1994:121)

To sum up, X' theory offers a unified approach to all phrasal structures and simplifies the concepts of syntactic categories, their nature as well as the syntactic nature of complements and adjuncts.

3.3.1 Case Marking:

Case mark is a grammatical category that is determined by the syntactic function of a noun or pronoun. There are four case forms cross-linguistically: nominative (Nom), accusative (Acc), genitive (Gen), and dative (Dat). In this chapter, our concern is with the distribution of nominative and accusative since they are the focus of our analysis of English small clauses and Arabic nominal sentences.

Depending on their position in the sentence, nouns and pronouns are assigned case as long as they are overt and form morphologically lexical arguments. However, in English case mark is not overt in NPs. The overt distinction of nominative and accusative case forms is found in the pronoun system. This can be illustrated in (80) below: Haegeman (1994)

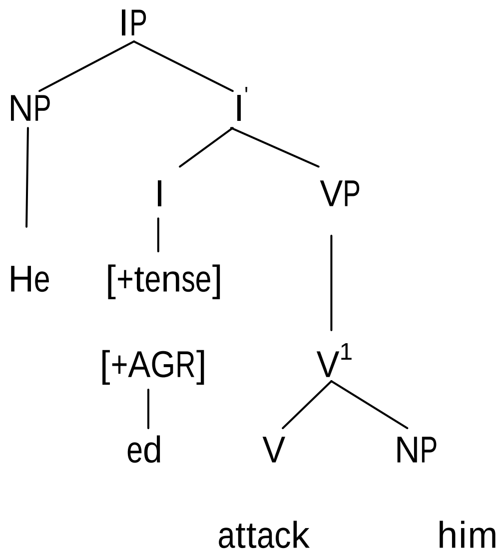
80. He attacked him.

In the above sentence, the pronoun 'He' is assigned nominative case while 'him' is assigned accusative case since it is the internal argument of the verb 'attack'. According to Haegeman (1994), finite clauses always have the INFL-node that holds the features [+tense] and [+AGR] which are responsible for assigning nominative case to the spec of IP. By contrast, non-finite clauses contain the feature [-tense] which can not assign case. This can be illustrated in (81-83) below:

81. a- I prefer very much [that he should go now]
 b- *I prefer very much [him to go now]

82. a-* [Him to attack Bill] would be illegal.
 b- [That he should have attacked Bill] was surprising.

83.

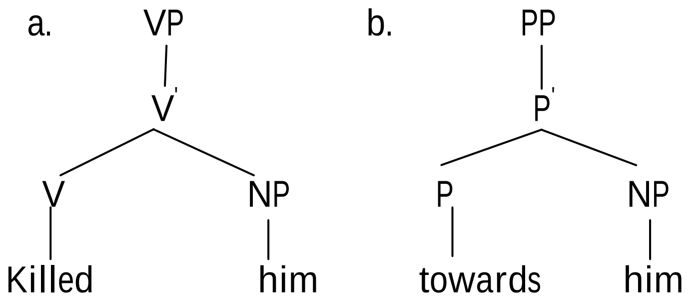


(Haegeman,1994:165)

Haegeman (1994)argues that the subject NP in the spec IP is assigned nominative case via two main mechanisms: either via government or via spec-head-agreement.

Concerning the accusative (Acc) case, Haegeman (1994) states that transitive verbs and prepositions assign accusative case to the NP they govern, this is shown in (84) below:

84.

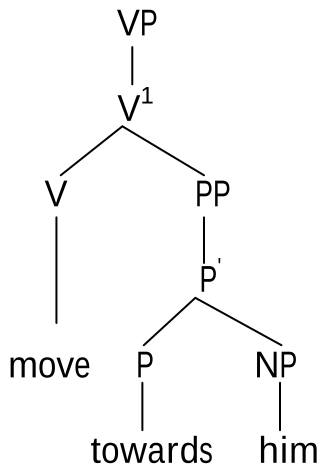


He adds accusative case is always assigned under government. That is; a verb cannot assign accusative case to the NP outside the VP such as (85) below:

85. *Him found the evidence.

Haegeman (1994) states that in situations where there are a verb and a preposition followed by NP as a complement this NP is assigned case by the preposition not by the verb since PP is a maximal projection and hence a barrier to government. This can be illustrated in (86) below:

86.



So we can postulate that there is a universal requirement that all overt NPs must be assigned abstract case(the Case Filter). This can be represented in the principle that says: every overt NP must be assigned abstract case. (Haegeman,1994:107)

Concerning the accusative case in the sentence in (87) below Haegeman (1994) argues that although IP is a maximal projection that separates the verb 'believe' from 'him', the verb 'believe' can still assign case to 'him'.

87. John believes him to be a liar .

He clarifies his view arguing that the infinitival IP does not constitute a barrier for outside government since its functional head has the features [-Tense ,-AGR] which are weak, so IPs, in this case, cannot block outside government. This process of case assigning is called Exceptional Case Marking (ECM). This is also applicable in verbless small clauses where the subject of the small clause is assigned accusative case by the matrix verb since small clauses have [-tense] in their INFL-node.

According to Haegeman (1994), Chomsky distinguishes two types of case assignment: structural case assignment which depends on government as mentioned above and inherent case assignment which depends on government and the θ- role (theta role) assignment.

Inherent case assignment is a mechanism under which a predicate can assign a specific case to NP external argument. According to Radford (2009) a direct object argument of a verb can be assigned inherent accusative case by virtue of being the theme argument of that verb. In fact this is applicable only when the direct object is in a position where it can not be assigned a structural case by the verb. This is illustrated in (88) below:

88. I sent him a letter. (Radford, 2009:207-208)

In (88) above, the indirect object 'him' which has the thematic role of 'goal' is assigned a structural accusative case by the ditransitive verb

'sent', whereas the direct object 'a letter' which has the thematic role of 'theme' is inherently accusative since it is external argument to the verb.

To sum up, overt NPs which are subject to case filter must have abstract case. This case might be nominative when the NP is in the spec-position. This nominative case is always assigned by INFL via spec-head agreement or under government. The accusative case is assigned by a verb or a preposition under government . ECM condition operates in non-finite clauses and in small clauses where IP is weak to block the outside government. Finally, inherent case mark is permitted in ditransitive verbs where the direct object argument in a position external to the verb.

3.3.2 Binding:

Binding can be defined as the relationship holds between a nominal and its antecedent NP. Nominals which normally have no reference must be linked to what is called an antecedent to determine their referent. They are of three main types: anaphors, pronouns and referential-expressions (R-expressions). First, anaphor must be in the same clause of its antecedent following Principle A of Binding Theory that says: an anaphor must be bound in its governing category. Haegeman (1994)

89. Poirot hurt himself.

In sentence (89) above, the pronoun 'himself' is an anaphor whose antecedent is 'Poirot'. By linking 'himself' to its antecedent' Poirot', then the referent of 'himself' is determined. This anaphor is now said to be bound to its antecedent. However, the anaphor cannot be bound to an antecedent in another clause. This can be illustrated in the following ungrammatical sentence in (90) below:

90. *Poirot thinks that Miss Marple hurt himself.

because the anaphor 'himself' must be bound to a NP in its own clause, and the only other NP in the clause is 'Miss Marple' who is feminine whereas himself is masculine the sentence is ungrammatical. The gender of the anaphor must agree with the gender of the antecedent. On the other hand, if 'himself' is replaced with 'herself', we would get a grammatical sentence. This is illustrated in (91) below:

(91) Poirot thinks that Miss Marple hurt herself. (Haegeman, 1994:208)

Second, pronouns are different from anaphors in that pronouns must be free in their binding domain. This is represented in Principle B of Binding Theory that says: a pronoun must be free in its governing category.

In the following sentence in (92) below, the pronoun 'him' lacks an antecedent inside its clause, so it refers to a referent outside the clause or the context.

92. a. $John_i$ thinks [that [$Mary_j$ likes $him_{i/k}$]]

b. $John_i$ considers [$Mary_j$ fond of $him_{i/k}$]

c.*John$_i$ considers [Mary$_j$ fond of her$_j$] (Haegeman, 1994:224)

According to Haegeman (1994), Jackendff (1992) explains the relation between pronouns and their antecedents via directional arrows. This is illustrated in (93) below where 'him' depends on 'he' and 'he' depends on John.

93. John said he thought Mary liked him.

Third, referential expressions (R-expressions) are inherently referential. They have independent reference from the universe of discourse. That is; they do not refer to any antecedent. This is illustrated in Principle C of Binding Theory that says: an R-expression must be free anywhere.

In example (94) below, 'John and Poirot' are R-expressions that select a referent from outside the governing category.

94. a. His$_i$ brother$_j$ likes John$_k$ very much.

b. Poirot$_i$ attacked him$_j$. (Haegeman,1994:226)

In sum, Binding Theory clarifies the way anaphors, pronouns, and R-expressions are linked to their suitable referents. That is; anaphors are linked to their antecedents within the same governing category, pronouns are bound to their antecedents outside their governing category, and finally, R-expressions must be linked to a referent outside the whole clause since it is inherently referential.

Chapter Four

Discussion, Findings and Conclusion, and Recommendations

4.1 Introduction:

This chapter consists of three main parts: first, a general discussion of the different views concerning English small clauses and Arabic nominal sentences is introduced. Having done this, and within the domain of X' theory (X-bar theory) a detailed comparison between Arabic nominal sentences and English small clauses is presented. In this comparison, tense, finiteness, case marking, and agreement are taken into consideration. Second, findings and conclusion are also presented to provide a clear insight to deal with such constructions. Third, at the end of this study, some suggested recommendations are presented to help those who are interested in this field.

4.2 Discussion: English Small Clauses

At the beginning of this paper, I mentioned that linguists have disagreed on the existence of small clauses and whether they really form a syntactic unit. This has led to much debate and lack of agreement on their categorial status and internal structure. Before analyzing and comparing the different views on the internal structure of SCs in English, it is necessary to prove that SCs exist as syntactic constituents. This can be done by applying some constituency tests.

Aarts (1992) states that if we can prove that the bracketed string 'Mary intelligent' and the other similar strings in the following examples in (95) as one unit that is one constituent where there is a subject–predicate relation, then we will be sure that the string 'Mary intelligent' is necessarily a clause.

95. a. I consider [Mary intelligent]
    b. We want [the boy happy]
    c. The teacher believes [the pupil stupid]
    d. The doctor considers [the patients maniacs]
    e. The captain wants [the sailor off his ship]

Many constituency tests can be applied here but I will limit myself to five tests: co-ordination, clefting, non-referential 'it' pronoun, binding effects, highlighting response to a question or constituent response test.

1.Co-ordination:

In syntax, it is known that only units of the same type can be co-ordinated, so the test supports that the bracketed strings are constituents. This is shown in (96)below:

96. a. I consider [Mary intelligent] and [Jane genius]
    b. We want [the boy happy] but [the girl angry]

c. The teacher believes [the pupil stupid] and [his colleague intelligent]

d. *The doctor considers [the patients maniacs] and [the secretary is a fool]

e. *The captain wants [the sailor off his ship] and [the cook]

2. Clefting:

Clefting test is an evidence against the status of the strings as constituents. This is shown in (97) below:

97. a.*It is [the pupil stupid] that the teacher believes.

b.*It is [the patient maniacs] that the doctor considers.

c.*It is [the sailor off his ship] that the captain wants.

3. Non -referential ' it ' pronoun:

The non-referential it-pronoun can not be an argument by its own since it does not have any semantic content, so the whole proposition forms an argument of the matrix verb. This is illustrated in (98) below:

98. a. I consider it a beautiful day.

b. I find it rather hot.

"In a theoretical term the matrix verbs assign a θ-role not to the NP 'it' but rather to the verbless propositions 'it a beautiful day' and 'it rather hot'" (Aarts, 1992:38)

4. Highlighting response to a question or constituent response test:

The bracketed strings in (99) below can occur in different positions, this refutes the claim that small clauses do not occur other than as complements of verbs.

99. a. Do you consider that man an idiot?

b. [that man an idiot?] You must be joking!

c. What does the teacher believe? [The pupil stupid]

d. What does the doctor consider? [The patients maniacs]

e. What does the captain want? [The sailor off his ship]

5. Binding effects:

According to Principle A of the Binding Theory, an anaphor must be bound within its local domain. Binding implies a C-command relation between the anaphor and a matching antecedent. We will informally assume that the local domain of an anaphor within the predicate of the SC is the clausal node of this SC. This can be illustrated in the sentences in (100) below:

100. a. Mary considers [Bill kind to himself]

b. Mary made [Bill angry at himself]

c.*Mary considers [Bill kind to herself]

d.*Mary made [Bill angry at herself] (Arts, 1992: 46)

I think it is clear now that the bracketed strings mentioned above are constituents. So now there are four tests that work perfectly with SCs and support the idea that matrix verbs such as those above subcategorize

semantically and syntactically for a constituent rather than two separate arguments. We should also notice that a failure of one test does not automatically mean that the tested string of words cannot function as a syntactic unit. It is generally known that it is evidence enough if one test shows a string of words as a constituent.

Again, the exact categorial status of SC node, as previously mentioned, has been debated among proponents of SC Theory. This long argumentation led to many different analyses of this construction. For example, Stowell (1981) analyzes a SC as a maximal projection of the head category and the matrix verb is sensitive to the elements inside SC. This idea is illustrated in (101) below:

101. a. I consider Mary intelligent.
b.* I want Mary intelligent.
c. I want Mary happy.
d.*I consider Mary happy.

According to Kitagawa (1985), who supports the Small Clause Theory, this kind of analysis is an unnecessary complication. He argues that the problem can be solved by arguing that there are selectional restrictions between the matrix verb and its SC complement. He means that 'consider-type verbs' select a 'state of affairs' complement whereas 'want-type verbs' select a 'change of state' complement. This is illustrated in (101) above.

Regarding the internal structure of small clauses in English, different analyses have been introduced to account for any problematic issues may appear. Nevertheless, there is still a lack of agreement on the ideal analysis that might be taken as a model when dealing with such constructions. For example, Kitagawa (1985) argues that SCs are to be treated as S' (S-bar) with INFL–node where copular 'Be' is located such as (102) below:

102. $[_{SC=S'}[_{S}$ NP $[_{INFL}$ BE] XP]]

In fact this analysis contradicts with the 'Barriers Framework' (Chomsky,1986b) and this can be interpreted as follows: on one hand, the NP can not be assigned case by the matrix verb since S' (CP) is a barrier by inheritance from S. On the other hand, the NP can not be assigned case by the INFL–node since this latter assigns nominative case whereas the NP must be accusative.

Hornstein–Lightfoot (1987) believe that SCs are Ss containing zero INFL–node. This analysis is also problematic for two reasons: the first is that zero INFL doesn't carry [AGR] feature that is responsible for the agreement relation between the subject and predicate of a small clause. The second is in the unnecessary complication of having two kinds of INFL-node; the regular INFL and the zero INFL.

Bowers (1993) proposes that SCs are to be analyzed as 'PrP'. This is implausible because we are dealing with a clause that should be finite or

non-finite and such analysis does not have a node that might deal with the finiteness requirement. Bas Aarts (1992) argues that SCs should be treated as IP containing an INFL–node and a VP–node headed by a null copular verb 'BE'.

In my discussion of English small clauses, I adopt Aarts' analysis. My choice is not haphazard, Aarts' analysis plausibly shows a strong attitude to overcome many problematic issues which other analyses could not account for, such issues are Finiteness, Case, and agreement relation between the subject and predicate of SCs. These are necessary elements in analyzing SCs as clausal constituents.

I shall summarize Aarts' analysis in order to use it to clarify and to examine its ability in analyzing SCs in English to a higher degree. Aarts' analysis goes as follows: SCs in English should be treated as IPs. These IPs contain an INFL–node and a VP–node headed by the null copular verb 'BE'. The INFL–node must be [-tense] because we do not have a lexical verb and if it were [+tense], the subject which is in the specifier position would be nominative, the thing that turns the sentence ungrammatical such as (103) below:

103. a. I consider her intelligent.
b.*I consider she intelligent.

Another feature that Aarts wants to add here is [+AGR] to account for the agreement relation holding between the SC-subject and its head 'I' in number and gender features which are lowered to 'BE' and transmitted to the predicate [XP] under government such as (104) below:

104. a. I believe John a fool.
b. I believe them fools.

This agreement requirement is not available in other analyses such as that of (Hornstein and Lightfoot, 1987) who propose the existence of Zero INFL that can not account for agreement relation between SC-subject and its predicate.

This phenomenon is also there in Radford's analysis (1998). He states that SCs lack a complementizer node and INFL–node. I think Radford is logical in the former but not in the latter. This can be interpreted as follows: complementizer–nodes are barriers for government by inheritance, so it is impossible for the subject of the SC to be assigned case by the matrix verb. Regarding the absence of the INFL–node, his analysis is implausible since this node is needed to account for finiteness and the agreement relation between the SC subject and its predicate. What Radford has mentioned in the quotation-chapter two- about those verbs which are tenseless and agreementless contradicts with the fact that there is agreement relation that connects the SC–subject with its predicate. Such relation was represented in example (104) above and repeated here in (105) below:

105. a. I believe John a fool.

b. I believe them fools.

4.3 Discussion: Arabic Nominal Sentences

On the same line with English small clauses, nominal sentences in Arabic could be proved to be independent syntactic units that function as clauses. This can be done by applying some constituency tests such as co-ordination and binding.

1. Co–ordination:

If we can co-ordinate the following bracketed strings in (106) below and get grammatical structures, then the bracketed strings are constituents that form clauses:

106. a. kaana [Ali-un shujaC-an] wa [Ahmad-u nashiiṭ-un]
b. [Khalid-un muCallim-un] wa [Zayd-un waziir-un]
c. *[Khalid-un muCallim-un] wa [Zayd-un fii al madrasati]

In (106 a, b) the sentences are grammatical since we co-ordinate strings of the same type, that is; NPs with NPs and APs with APs. But in (106 c) the sentence is ungrammatical because the NP is co-ordinated to PP which is a different string.

2. Binding effects:

An anaphor must be bound within its local domain, so the anaphor must match its antecedent within the predicate of the same clausal node. This is shown in (107) below:

107. a. iCtaqadat Layla ?na Zayd-an ghaaÐ ib-an min nafsihi.
Thought-3sf Layla-Nom that Zayd-Acc angry-Acc of himself
"Layla thought that Zayd angry of himself."
b. * iCtaqadat Layla ?na Zayd-an ghaaÐ ib-an min nafsaha.
Thought-3sf layla-Nom that Zayd-Acc angry-Acc of herself.
* "Layla thought that Zayd angry of herself."

In (107 b) the ungrammaticality of the sentence lies in the use of the anaphor **'nafsaha'** that does not match the antecedent 'Zayd' that masculine, so this test supports the bracketed strings to be constituents.

Regarding the internal structure of nominal sentences in Arabic, Arab grammarians have introduced many analyses to account for two types of this construction, independent nominal sentences which lack an overt verb and dependent (embedded) nominal sentences which have a lexical verb.

Such analyses include different views such as: first, the view that argues nominal sentences have no functional projection but rather a lexical projection of subject and predicate (Mouchaweh,1986). In fact this view relies much on the traditional analyses of verbless sentences in that both of them reject the existence of INFL or VP–nodes. This assumption contradicts with the fact that there are two arguments (subject and predicate) that must be case marked and agree in a certain mechanism. A second view is that Arabic verbless sentences have a null or deleted

copular verb (Fassi Fehri,1993, Bakir 1980,etc). According to (Benmamoun, 2000), this proposal is not applicable since it can not explain why when the copula is overt the predicate carries accusative case and when it is null or deleted the predicate carries nominative case. A third view is that there is an INFL–node which with its presence selects a VP complement and NP, AP or PP with its absence (Bahloul,1994).

In my discussion of Arabic nominal sentences I will adopt Al-Seghayar's analysis (1988). This is because his analysis perfectly and persuasively deals with independent and embedded nominal sentences.

Al-Seghayar's analysis (1988) can be summarized as follows: small clauses (nominal sentences) are IPs which contain an INFL–node that is internal to the IP and external to the SC. He proposes the following rule in (108) below:

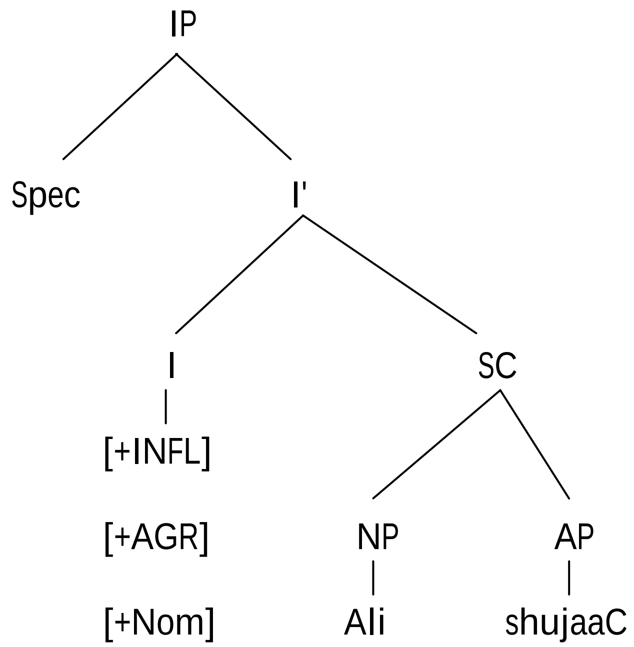
108. INFL ⟶ INFL SC.
SC ⟶ NP XP.

According to Al-Seghayar (1988), this INFL is either full INFL that assigns case to small clauses when they are independent or zero INFL which does not assign case to small clauses when they are embedded or have an overt copular verb such as **'kaana'** = (be-past) which itself assigns case instead. This is illustrated in (109-113) below:

109. Ali –un ShujaaC-un
Ali – Nom brave – Nom
"Ali is brave."

110. [IP [I' [I+INFL [+AGR] [+Nom] [SC [NP Ali] [AP ShujaaC]]]]]

111.



112. kaana Ali – un shujaaC-an
Was Ali – Nom brave – Acc.
"Ali was brave."

113. a. [IP [kaana [IP [I' [I [INFL0 [AGR] [SC [NP Ali] [AP shujaaC]]]]]]]

b. [IP [kaana [IP Ali i [I' [I [INFL0 [AGR] [SC [ti] [AP shujaaC]]]]]]]

4.4 Discussion: English Small Clauses and Arabic Nominal Sentences

At the beginning of this paper, I mentioned that SCs are clausal constituents, this assumption was proved by different types of constituency tests applied previously in this chapter. Regarding being clausal, it is necessary to assume that there must be an INFL-node that governs the different features holding between the subject and predicate of these clauses such features include finiteness, case–marking, agreement in number and gender. As we have seen in the different analyses shown in chapter two, most English and Arabic grammarians have agreed on the existence of INFL-node carries the features [+tense]or [-tense] and [+AGR] to account for nominative and accusative cases that the NP might take and the agreement relation holding between the subject and its predicate.

In Arabic, the subject and predicate show morphological realization for gender and number in addition to case. This is illustrated in (114) below:

114. a. al – waladu nashiiṭ-un
The boy – Nom active – Nom
"The boy is active."

b. al-bintu nashiiṭat–un
the girl- Nom active–Nom
"The girl is active."

c.* al–walada nashiiṭat–un
the boy – acc active –Nom

In (114 a-b), the sentences are grammatical because the subject and predicate are in the nominative case and the agreement relation between them is not violated. In (114 c) the ungrammaticality of the sentence lies in the violation of case in the subject and the violation in agreement between the subject which is masculine and the predicate which is feminine.

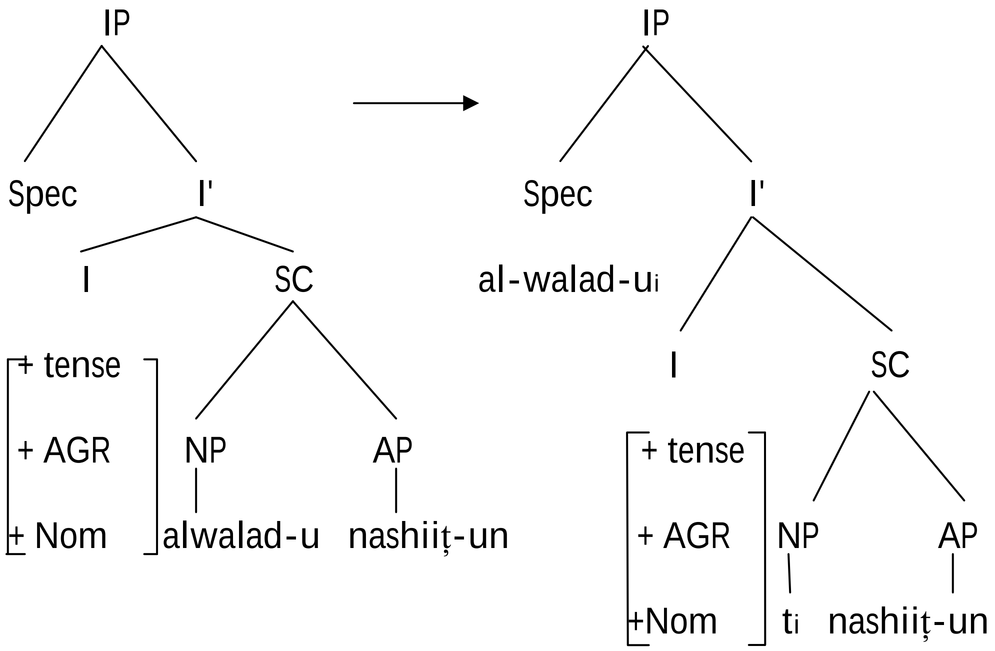
Following Al-Seghayar (1988), we can examine the grammaticality of such sentences using the following representation in (115-116) below:

115. a. [IP [I' [I +INFL [+AGR] [+Nom][sc [NP][AP/NP]]]]]

b. [IP [I'[I+INFL[+AGR] [+Nom] [SC[NP al-walad] [AP nashiiṭ]]]]]]

c.[IP al-walad-u$_i$[I'[I+INFL [+AGR][+Nom][SC[t$_i$] [AP nashiiṭ-un]]]]]]]

116.



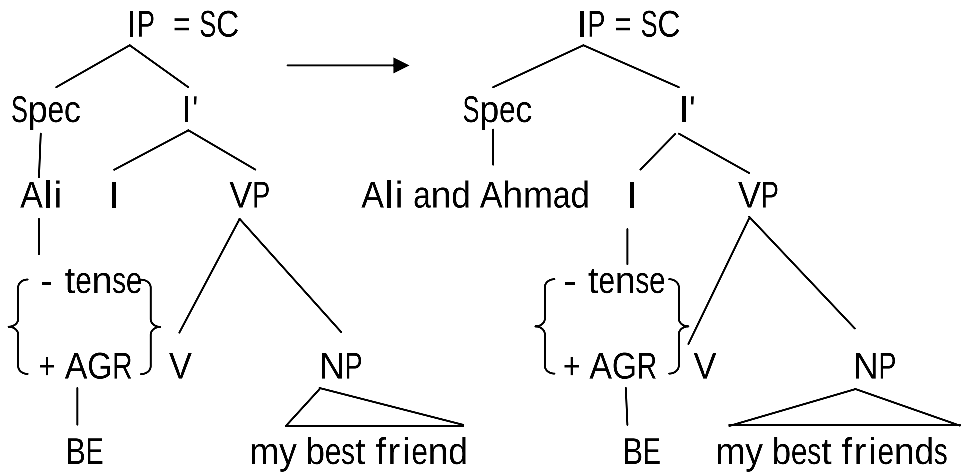
English also has this agreement between the subject and predicate of SCs shown in (117) below:

117. a. I believe [Ali my best friend]
b. I believe [Ali and Ahmad my best friends]
c.*I believe [Ali and Ahmad my best friend]

so this agreement relation must be accounted for by a certain mechanism. This mechanism can be interpreted by assuming that the feature [+AGR] accompanied the [-tense] grammatically connects the subject with its predicate.

This can be illustrated in (118) below:

118.



Another point that should be mentioned here is that Arabic independent nominal sentences which are always in the present tense can also have an overt copula just like English. This copula is restricted to **'yakuunu'** = (be-present) which is added to convey temporal and aspectual meanings such as (119) below: (Al-khawalda,1997: 249,250)

119. ya-kuunu al-jaww-u ħaarr-an fi-Ş Şayf-i
PRES-be the-weather-Nom hot-Acc in the-summer-Gen
"The weather is hot in the summer." (Benmamoun, 2000: 47)

In fact it is obligatory when it is restricted to encode moods preceded by modals such as **'qad'**(may), **'yajibu ?an'** (it is obligatory that), and **'yastatiiCu' ?an** (he is able to). This is illustrated in (120) below:

120. a. qad yakuunu Zayd-un mariiĐ -an
Part. Pres-aux-3sm zayd-Nom ill-Acc
" Zayd may be ill."
b. *qad Zayd-un mariiĐ -an
Part. zayd-Nom ill-Acc
"Zayd may be ill." (Al-khawalda,1997:249,250)

What one can conclude from the examples in (119-120) above is that Arabic has two alternatives regarding independent nominal sentences; they can have a copula that is null or unpronounced or a copula that is restricted to **'yakuunu'**=(be-present) which is obligatory when it is preceded by modals as it is shown in (120) above. The presence of this copula conveys temporal, aspectual, and permanent indications.

Arabic embedded nominal sentences are largely similar to English small clauses which are always embedded in that both of them have an INFL-node which is [-tense].This can be interpreted as follows: In English, SCs are C-commanded by the matrix verb which is responsible for assigning case to the NP located in the specifier position of a SC. The NP is then assigned accusative case in a process called Exceptional Case Marking (ECM), so no need for the feature [+tense] because it is known in syntax that an argument must be assigned one and only one case mark. This can be illustrated in (121) below:

121. a. I want [her in my office]
b.*I want [she in my office]

The same phenomenon also appears in Arabic embedded small clauses where the matrix verb assigns accusative case to the NP that comes after it. This can be illustrated in (122) below:

122. iCtaqat-u al-walad-a mujtahid-an
Thought- I the-boy-Acc hard-working-Acc
"I thought the boy hardworking."

This occurrence of [-tense] also appears in clauses with **'kaana'**= (be-past) and **'Inna'**. **'kaana'** and **'Inna'** subcategorize for a NP and a

predicate which by their own form a nominal sentence such as (123) below:

123. a. kaana al-walad-u mujtahid-an
Was the- boy- Nom hard-working-Acc
"The boy was hard working."
b. inna al-walad-a mujtahid-un
Comp the- boy-Acc hard-working-Nom
"The boy is hard-working."

Following Arab grammarians, **'kaana'** is distinguished from **'Inna'** in that **'kaana'** is considered incomplete verb that assigns nominative to the subject NP and accusative case to the predicate NP or AP, whereas **'inna'** is considered a complementizer which assigns accusative case to the subject NP and nominative to the predicate NP, AP. This is shown in (124) below:

124. a. [IP [INFL kaana [IP [I' [I [SC [NP al-walad-u][AP mujtahid-an]]]]]]]

[IP [INFL kaana [IP al-walad-u$_i$ [I' [I [SC [t$_i$] [AP mujtahid-an]]]]]]]

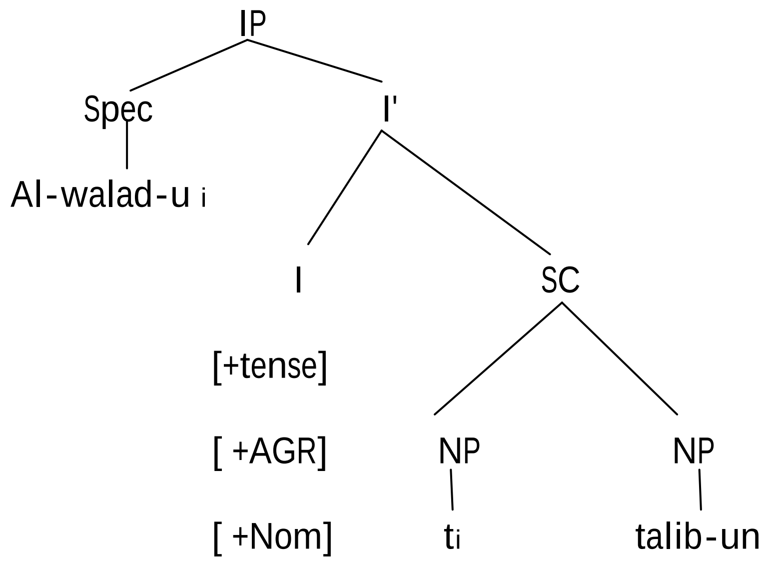
b.[cp[c inna [IP[I' [I INFL [SC [NP al-walad-a] [AP mujtahid-un]]]]]]]

[CP[C inna [IP al-walad-a$_i$][I' [I INFL [SC [t$_i$] [AP mujtahid-un]]]]]]]

What we should notice from example (124) above is that subject raising is an important process when dealing with Arabic SCs containing **'kaana'** and **'inna'**. This raising process is important for two reasons: first, the INFL-node is marked [-tense] and hence it can not assign case to NP inside the SC. Second, there are intervening elements between the NP and the two case assigners **'kaana'** and **'inna'** mentioned above, so the NP is forced to raise to the spec IP to be assigned case.

This is also applicable in independent small clauses without overt copula. That is; the subject raises to the spec IP from the spec of a SC to be assigned nominative case by the INFL–node in the higher IP. A trace is left behind to show where the NP is base generated as illustrated in (125) below:

125.



Now we reach to a point where we find ourselves face to face with a question which says: how does the predicate get its case in small clauses where we have an outside governor ? In the previous example in (125) above, I have illustrated how the NP in the spec of a SC gets assigned case by raising to the spec IP, but what about the predicate?

There are two possible ways to account for case and agreement in Arabic nominal clauses with **'kaana'**=*(be-past)*. First, **'kaana'** adjoins to IP to assign nominative case to the subject of a SC when it raises from the spec of the SC to the spec IP and then the INFL-node assigns accusative case to the predicate of the SC in the right since there is no longer intervening element in between. Second, the INFL–node assigns nominative case to the SC-subject at D-structure before it raises to the spec of lower IP and then **'kaana'** assigns accusative case to the predicate of the SC since there is no lexical elements intervening.

This can also be applied to constructions with **'inna'** where the SC-subject 'Ali' in example (126) below raises to the spec IP to be assigned accusative case by the case assigner **'inna'** instead of the nominative case after INFL. Regarding the predicate, it keeps its default case which is nominative.

126. a. inna Ali-an wasiim-un
Comp Ali-Acc hand-some-Nom
"Ali is handsome."

b. [CP [C inna [IP [I' [I INFL [SC [NP Ali][AP wasiim]]]]]]

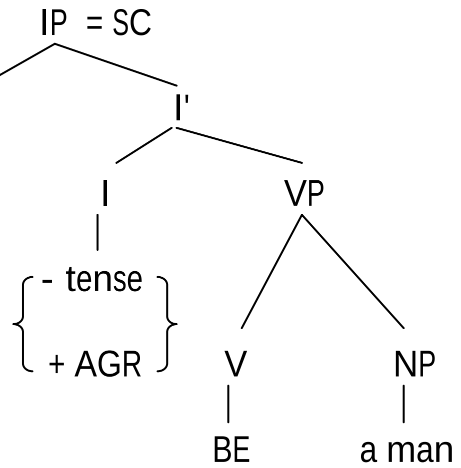
c. [CP [C inna [IP Ali [I' [I INFL [SC [ti][AP wasiim]]]]]]

After illustrating the way by which the subject and predicate are assigned case in Arabic, Another two questions arise here: what is the case of the English SC–predicate? And how is it assigned this case? When I have talked about the SC-subject, I have clarified that in syntax this NP is

assigned accusative case from the matrix verb that C-commands it via the process 'Exceptional Case Marking (ECM)'. Concerning the SC- predicate NP, I can answer the two questions above via Aarts' analysis as follows: simply, this NP carries accusative case which is assigned to it by the null 'BE' in the head V of the VP. This can be represented in (127) below:

127. a. I consider [him a man].

b.



In example (127) above, the NP 'a man' is an argument that is subject to the case requirement, so following the 'Case Filter Principle' which requires all lexical NPs to have case, the NP is assigned accusative case by the null 'BE' in the D-structure. This is supported by the principle adopted in the theory of government: "Governing words bear case-assigning, when they are null or deleted" (Aarts, 1992:181).

In fact this assumption refutes the claim that the existence of null copula 'BE' in Aarts' analysis is unnecessary complication that violates the 'Economy Condition' in Minimalism. That is instead of saying that the SC-predicate NP is accusative by default, this analysis provides a logical and scientific understanding of such issue.

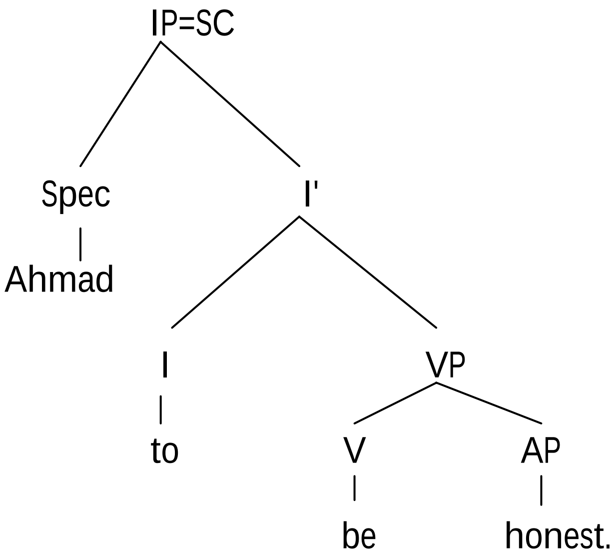
In the introduction of this paper, I mentioned that some syntacticians such as (Wieson, 2003), (Yokogoshi, 2003), (Haegeman, 1991), (Weker, 1985) among others argue that SCs are derived from their non–finite clauses such as (128) below:

128. a. I believe [Ahmad honest]

b. I believe [Ahmad to be honest]

In support of this view, one can argue that Aarts' analysis also provides an account for analyzing such structures. Such thing supports the existence of VP-node in analyzing SCs. This can be illustrated in (129) below:

129.



One can conclude that Aarts' analysis for analyzing the internal structure of SCs is, to a large extent, able to solve many problematic issues that previous analyses could not account for. Such issues include constituency, case-marking, agreement relation holding between the SC-subject NP and its predicate, and finally finiteness. Regarding Al-Seghayar's analysis (1988), I think it perfectly provides a comprehensive account for analyzing nominal sentences in Arabic. This view is supported by the syntactic solutions this analysis offers to help analyzing the internal structure of Arabic independent and embedded nominal sentences.

4.5 Findings and Conclusion:

According to the above discussion and analyses, the conclusion that can be drawn here is that English has the string [NP XP] that forms a constituent which in turn forms a clause. This string is subcategorized by a matrix verb. This matrix verb C-commands the SC by assigning accusative case mark to its subject and also plays a vital role in selecting the suitable predicate. Matrix verbs can be grouped into two main types: first, consider-type verbs select SCs which express 'state of affairs' where as 'want-type verbs select SCs which express 'change of state'.

The existence of small clauses has put syntacticians face to face with the question: what is the categorial status and internal structure of such clauses? In fact, different views have been introduced to account for the exact categorial status of SCs and the form of their internal structure that they take.

After analyzing and comparing these views, mentioned above, I have found that Aarts' analysis (1992), to a large extent, provides a comprehensive account that can perfectly deal with and analyze small clauses in English.

Concerning Arabic nominal sentences, Arab grammarians would define them as those sentences which start with a noun or pronoun and take a NP, AP, or PP as a predicate. These two nominal elements must show morphological realization for gender, number, and case. Grammarians have distinguished between two types of nominal sentences; first, the independent clause which includes a subject and predicate only without any lexical verb or includes an overt copula derived from the stem ***'k-w-n'.*** Second, the dependent(embedded) clause which has a subject and predicate with a lexical verb. The focus of the study has been on the first type, the independent or what is known traditionally as 'verbless sentences'.

After analyzing and comparing such sentences–the verbless ones-I have found that most Arab grammarians such as (Fassi Fehri, 1993), (AL-Seghayar,1988), (AL-Khawalda, 1997), among others, have agreed on treating them as small clauses compared to English small clauses. However, as I have clarified previously in this chapter, they have been debating on the internal structure of such constructions

Examining the different views concerning Arabic nominal sentences, I have found that the optimal analysis for analyzing nominal sentences as small clauses is that of (AL-Seghayar, 1988). AL-Seghayar's analysis can be summarized as follows: Arabic nominal sentences must be treated as small clauses even when they are embedded in a main clause. Moreover, these small clauses are to be analyzed as IPs containing an INFL-node which is internal to the IP but external to the SC. The INFL-node must be [+tense] in independent small clauses but [-tense] in embedded small clauses because there is a lexical verb and in independent small clauses where there is an outside governor that assigns case to both subject and predicate.

Concerning the comparison between English small clauses and Arabic nominal sentences which can be treated as small clauses too, both of them have some features in common. This can be illustrated in the following discussion:

1. Most English syntacticians tend to treat the string [NP XP] as a small clause that forms a clausal constituent. Within the same line, Arabic nominal sentences have the same English small clauses string [NP XP] which also carries the characteristics of a full clause.
2. Regarding being finite or non-finite, both Arabic nominal sentences and English small clauses must have an INFL-node. This node must be [-tense] in embedded small clause in Arabic and English. Otherwise, we will get ungrammatical structures.
3. There is a full agreement relation between the subject and predicate in both English SCs and Arabic NSs. That is the predicate carries all features that the subject has such as gender, number. This relation is accounted for by the feature [+AGR] located in the INFL-node.

4. Arabic embedded nominal clauses and English small clauses which are always embedded carry the same case. That is; the NP and its predicate are accusative.

On the other hand, some differences seem to appear when comparing Arabic nominal sentences and English small clauses. This can be illustrated as follows:

1. Unlike English small clauses, Arabic independent nominal clauses have freely two alternatives regarding the existence of copula. That is; these independent clauses may either have a copula that is null or unpronounced or have an overt copula that is restricted to **'yakuunu'** =(be-present). However, this copula (e.i **yakuunu**) is obligatory when preceded by modals.
2. English SCs which are always embedded depend completely on their matrix clause in tense while Arabic nominal sentences (the dependent), according to (Benmamoun, 2000) are not necessarily carrying the same tense that of the matrix verb.
3. Unlike English small clauses, in Arabic nominal sentences, subject raising from the spec of SC to the spec IP is a necessary process for the subject to be assigned nominative and for the predicate to be assigned accusative by the INFL-node.
4. English SC-subject and predicate are always accusative; that is the subject is assigned accusative from the matrix verb (ECM) while the predicate is assigned accusative by default or by the null 'Be' in the head V of the VP in Aarts' analysis as I have suggested. On the other hand, the subject and predicate in nominal sentences in Arabic show changeable case: that is; in independent clauses, they are both always nominative when they lack an overt copula whereas in subcategorized clauses with copular verb such as **'kaana'**=(be-past), the subject carries nominative case and the predicate is accusative. On the other hand, the complementizer **'inna'** subcategorizes for a small clause with accusative subject and nominative predicate.

4.6 Recommendations:

In the light of the findings of this study, the researcher recommends the following:

1. Conducting another study is recommended to discuss the same topic in different languages to know more about the construction of small clauses and their analysis in these languages.
2. Conducting a similar study on Arabic verbal sentences that contain the string [NP XP] after full fledged verbs is recommended to know if such string can be compared to the same string in independent nominal sentences.

3. Conducting another study on other aspects related to small clauses such as extraction, adverbs, wh-movement and PRO is also recommended to recognize them and to know how they operate in such clauses.

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